CHAPTER

6 Counting

Combinatorics, the study of arrangements of objects, is an important part of discrete mathematics. This subject was studied as long ago as the seventeenth century, when combinatorial questions arose in the study of gambling games. Enumeration, the counting of objects with certain properties, is an important part of combinatorics. We must count objects to solve many different types of problems. For instance, counting is used to determine the complexity of algorithms. Counting is also required to determine whether there are enough telephone numbers or Internet protocol addresses to meet demand. Recently, it has played a key role in mathematical biology, especially in sequencing DNA. Furthermore, counting techniques are used extensively when probabilities of events are computed.

The basic rules of counting, which we will study in Section 6.1, can solve a tremendous variety of problems. For instance, we can use these rules to enumerate the different telephone numbers possible in the United States, the allowable passwords on a computer system, and the different orders in which the runners in a race can finish. Another important combinatorial tool is the pigeonhole principle, which we will study in Section 6.2. This states that when objects are placed in boxes and there are more objects than boxes, then there is a box containing at least two objects. For instance, we can use this principle to show that among a set of 15 or more students, at least 3 were born on the same day of the week.

We can phrase many counting problems in terms of ordered or unordered arrangements of the objects of a set with or without repetitions. These arrangements, called permutations and combinations, are used in many counting problems. For instance, suppose the 100 top finishers on a competitive exam taken by 2000 students are invited to a banquet. We can count the possible sets of 100 students that will be invited, as well as the ways in which the top 10 prizes can be awarded.

Another problem in combinatorics involves generating all the arrangements of a specified kind. This is often important in computer simulations. We will devise algorithms to generate arrangements of various types.

6.1 The Basics of Counting

6.1.1 Introduction

Suppose that a password on a computer system consists of six, seven, or eight characters. Each of these characters must be a digit or a letter of the alphabet. Each password must contain at least one digit. How many such passwords are there? The techniques needed to answer this question and a wide variety of other counting problems will be introduced in this section.

Counting problems arise throughout mathematics and computer science. For example, we must count the successful outcomes of experiments and all the possible outcomes of these experiments to determine probabilities of discrete events. We need to count the number of operations used by an algorithm to study its time complexity.

We will introduce the basic techniques of counting in this section. These methods serve as the foundation for almost all counting techniques.

6.1.2 Basic Counting Principles

Assessment

We first present two basic counting principles, the **product rule** and the **sum rule**. Then we will show how they can be used to solve many different counting problems.

The product rule applies when a procedure is made up of separate tasks.

THE PRODUCT RULE Suppose that a procedure can be broken down into a sequence of two tasks. If there are n_1 ways to do the first task and for each of these ways of doing the first task, there are n_2 ways to do the second task, then there are $n_1 n_2$ ways to do the procedure.

Extra Examples

Examples 1–10 show how the product rule is used.

EXAMPLE 1 A new company with just two employees, Sanchez and Patel, rents a floor of a building with 12 offices. How many ways are there to assign different offices to these two employees?

Solution: The procedure of assigning offices to these two employees consists of assigning an office to Sanchez, which can be done in 12 ways, then assigning an office to Patel different from the office assigned to Sanchez, which can be done in 11 ways. By the product rule, there are $12 \cdot 11 = 132$ ways to assign offices to these two employees. ◀

EXAMPLE 2 The chairs of an auditorium are to be labeled with an uppercase English letter followed by a positive integer not exceeding 100. What is the largest number of chairs that can be labeled differently?

Solution: The procedure of labeling a chair consists of two tasks, namely, assigning to the seat one of the 26 uppercase English letters, and then assigning to it one of the 100 possible integers. The product rule shows that there are $26 \cdot 100 = 2600$ different ways that a chair can be labeled. Therefore, the largest number of chairs that can be labeled differently is 2600. ◀

EXAMPLE 3 There are 32 computers in a data center in the cloud. Each of these computers has 24 ports. How many different computer ports are there in this data center?

Solution: The procedure of choosing a port consists of two tasks, first picking a computer and then picking a port on this computer. Because there are 32 ways to choose the computer and 24 ways to choose the port no matter which computer has been selected, the product rule shows that there are $32 \cdot 24 = 768$ ports. ◀

An extended version of the product rule is often useful. Suppose that a procedure is carried out by performing the tasks $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_m$ in sequence. If each task T_i, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, can be done in n_i ways, regardless of how the previous tasks were done, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot n_m$ ways to carry out the procedure. This version of the product rule can be proved by mathematical induction from the product rule for two tasks (see Exercise 76).

EXAMPLE 4 How many different bit strings of length seven are there?

Solution: Each of the seven bits can be chosen in two ways, because each bit is either 0 or 1. Therefore, the product rule shows there are a total of $2^7 = 128$ different bit strings of length seven. ◀

EXAMPLE 5 How many different license plates can be made if each plate contains a sequence of three uppercase English letters followed by three digits (and no sequences of letters are prohibited, even if they are obscene)?

$\underbrace{\_\ \_\ \_}_{\text{26 choices for each letter}}\ \underbrace{\_\ \_\ \_}_{\text{10 choices for each digit}}$

Solution: There are 26 choices for each of the three uppercase English letters and 10 choices for each of the three digits. Hence, by the product rule there are a total of $26 \cdot 26 \cdot 26 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 =$ 17,576,000 possible license plates. ◀

EXAMPLE 6 **Counting Functions** How many functions are there from a set with m elements to a set with n elements?

Solution: A function corresponds to a choice of one of the n elements in the codomain for each of the m elements in the domain. Hence, by the product rule there are $n \cdot n \cdot \cdots \cdot n = n^m$ functions from a set with m elements to one with n elements. For example, there are $5^3 = 125$ different functions from a set with three elements to a set with five elements. ◀

EXAMPLE 7 **Counting One-to-One Functions** How many one-to-one functions are there from a set with m elements to one with n elements?

Solution: First note that when $m > n$ there are no one-to-one functions from a set with m elements to a set with n elements.

Counting the number of onto functions is harder. We'll do this in Chapter 8.

Now let $m \le n$. Suppose the elements in the domain are $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$. There are n ways to choose the value of the function at a_1. Because the function is one-to-one, the value of the function at a_2 can be picked in $n - 1$ ways (because the value used for a_1 cannot be used again). In general, the value of the function at a_k can be chosen in $n - k + 1$ ways. By the product rule, there are $n(n - 1)(n - 2) \cdots (n - m + 1)$ one-to-one functions from a set with m elements to one with n elements.

For example, there are $5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 = 60$ one-to-one functions from a set with three elements to a set with five elements. ◀

EXAMPLE 8 **The Telephone Numbering Plan** The *North American numbering plan (NANP)* specifies the format of telephone numbers in the U.S., Canada, and many other parts of North America. A telephone number in this plan consists of 10 digits, which are split into a three-digit area code, a three-digit office code, and a four-digit station code. Because of signaling considerations, there are certain restrictions on some of these digits. To specify the allowable format, let X denote a digit that can take any of the values 0 through 9, let N denote a digit that can take any of the values 2 through 9, and let Y denote a digit that must be a 0 or a 1. Two numbering plans, which will be called the old plan, and the new plan, will be discussed. (The old plan, in use in the 1960s, has been replaced by the new plan, but the recent rapid growth in demand for new numbers for mobile phones and devices will eventually make even this new plan obsolete. In this example, the letters used to represent digits follow the conventions of the *North American Numbering Plan*.) As will be shown, the new plan allows the use of more numbers.

Links

Current projections are that by 2038, it will be necessary to add one or more digits to North American telephone numbers.

In the old plan, the formats of the area code, office code, and station code are *NYX*, *NNX*, and *XXXX*, respectively, so that telephone numbers had the form *NYX-NNX-XXXX*. In the new plan, the formats of these codes are *NXX*, *NXX*, and *XXXX*, respectively, so that telephone numbers have the form *NXX-NXX-XXXX*. How many different North American telephone numbers are possible under the old plan and under the new plan?

Solution: By the product rule, there are $8 \cdot 2 \cdot 10 = 160$ area codes with format *NYX* and $8 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 800$ area codes with format *NXX*. Similarly, by the product rule, there are

$8 \cdot 8 \cdot 10 = 640$ office codes with format *NNX*. The product rule also shows that there are $10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 10{,}000$ station codes with format *XXXX*.

Note that we have ignored restrictions that rule out N11 station codes for most area codes.

Consequently, applying the product rule again, it follows that under the old plan there are

$$160 \cdot 640 \cdot 10{,}000 = 1{,}024{,}000{,}000$$

different numbers available in North America. Under the new plan, there are

$$800 \cdot 800 \cdot 10{,}000 = 6{,}400{,}000{,}000$$

different numbers available. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 What is the value of k after the following code, where $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_m$ are positive integers, has been executed?

```
k := 0
for i_1 := 1 to n_1
    for i_2 := 1 to n_2
            .
            .
            .
        for i_m := 1 to n_m
            k := k + 1
```

Solution: The initial value of k is zero. Each time the nested loop is traversed, 1 is added to k. Let T_i be the task of traversing the ith loop. Then the number of times the loop is traversed is the number of ways to do the tasks $T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_m$. The number of ways to carry out the task T_j, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, is n_j, because the jth loop is traversed once for each integer i_j with $1 \le i_j \le n_j$. By the product rule, it follows that the nested loop is traversed $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_m$ times. Hence, the final value of k is $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_m$. ◀

EXAMPLE 10 **Counting Subsets of a Finite Set** Use the product rule to show that the number of different subsets of a finite set S is $2^{|S|}$.

Solution: Let S be a finite set. List the elements of S in arbitrary order. Recall from Section 2.2 that there is a one-to-one correspondence between subsets of S and bit strings of length $|S|$. Namely, a subset of S is associated with the bit string with a 1 in the ith position if the ith element in the list is in the subset, and a 0 in this position otherwise. By the product rule, there are $2^{|S|}$ bit strings of length $|S|$. Hence, $|P(S)| = 2^{|S|}$. (Recall that we used mathematical induction to prove this fact in Example 10 of Section 5.1.) ◀

The product rule is often phrased in terms of sets in this way: If $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m$ are finite sets, then the number of elements in the Cartesian product of these sets is the product of the number of elements in each set. To relate this to the product rule, note that the task of choosing an element in the Cartesian product $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_m$ is done by choosing an element in A_1, an element in A_2, …, and an element in A_m. By the product rule it follows that

$$|A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_m| = |A_1| \cdot |A_2| \cdot \cdots \cdot |A_m|.$$

EXAMPLE 11 **DNA and Genomes** The hereditary information of a living organism is encoded using deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), or in certain viruses, ribonucleic acid (RNA). DNA and RNA are extremely complex molecules, with different molecules interacting in a vast variety of ways to enable living process. For our purposes, we give only the briefest description of how DNA and RNA encode genetic information.

DNA molecules consist of two strands consisting of blocks known as nucleotides. Each nucleotide contains subcomponents called **bases**, each of which is adenine (A), cytosine (C), guanine (G), or thymine (T). The two strands of DNA are held together by hydrogen bonds connecting different bases, with A bonding only with T, and C bonding only with G. Unlike DNA, RNA is single stranded, with uracil (U) replacing thymine as a base. So, in DNA the possible base pairs are A-T and C-G, while in RNA they are A-U, and C-G. The DNA of a living creature consists of multiple pieces of DNA forming separate chromosomes. A **gene** is a segment of a DNA molecule that encodes a particular protein. The entirety of genetic information of an organism is called its **genome**.

Sequences of bases in DNA and RNA encode long chains of proteins called amino acids. There are 22 essential amino acids for human beings. We can quickly see that a sequence of at least three bases are needed to encode these 22 different amino acid. First note, that because there are four possibilities for each base in DNA, A, C, G, and T, by the product rule there are $4^2 = 16 < 22$ different sequences of two bases. However, there are $4^3 = 64$ different sequences of three bases, which provide enough different sequences to encode the 22 different amino acids (even after taking into account that several different sequences of three bases encode the same amino acid).

Soon it won't be that costly to have your own genetic code found.

The DNA of simple living creatures such as algae and bacteria have between 10^5 and 10^7 links, where each link is one of the four possible bases. More complex organisms, such as insects, birds, and mammals, have between 10^8 and 10^{10} links in their DNA. So, by the product rule, there are at least 4^{10^5} different sequences of bases in the DNA of simple organisms and at least 4^{10^8} different sequences of bases in the DNA of more complex organisms. These are both incredibly huge numbers, which helps explain why there is such tremendous variability among living organisms. In the past several decades techniques have been developed for determining the genome of different organisms. The first step is to locate each gene in the DNA of an organism. The next task, called **gene sequencing**, is the determination of the sequence of links on each gene. (The specific sequence of links on these genes depends on the particular individual representative of a species whose DNA is analyzed.) For example, the human genome includes approximately 23,000 genes, each with 1000 or more links. Gene sequencing techniques take advantage of many recently developed algorithms and are based on numerous new ideas in combinatorics. Many mathematicians and computer scientists work on problems involving genomes, taking part in the fast moving fields of bioinformatics and computational biology. ◀

We now introduce the sum rule.

> THE SUM RULE If a task can be done either in one of n_1 ways or in one of n_2 ways, where none of the set of n_1 ways is the same as any of the set of n_2 ways, then there are $n_1 + n_2$ ways to do the task.

Example 12 illustrates how the sum rule is used.

EXAMPLE 12 Suppose that either a member of the mathematics faculty or a student who is a mathematics major is chosen as a representative to a university committee. How many different choices are there for this representative if there are 37 members of the mathematics faculty and 83 mathematics majors and no one is both a faculty member and a student?

Solution: There are 37 ways to choose a member of the mathematics faculty and there are 83 ways to choose a student who is a mathematics major. Choosing a member of the mathematics faculty is never the same as choosing a student who is a mathematics major because no one is both a faculty member and a student. By the sum rule it follows that there are $37 + 83 = 120$ possible ways to pick this representative. ◀

We can extend the sum rule to more than two tasks. Suppose that a task can be done in one of n_1 ways, in one of n_2 ways, … , or in one of n_m ways, where none of the set of n_i ways of doing the task is the same as any of the set of n_j ways, for all pairs i and j with $1 \leq i < j \leq m$. Then the number of ways to do the task is $n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_m$. This extended version of the sum rule is often useful in counting problems, as Examples 13 and 14 show. This version of the sum rule can be proved using mathematical induction from the sum rule for two sets. (See Exercise 75.)

EXAMPLE 13 A student can choose a computer project from one of three lists. The three lists contain 23, 15, and 19 possible projects, respectively. No project is on more than one list. How many possible projects are there to choose from?

Solution: The student can choose a project by selecting a project from the first list, the second list, or the third list. Because no project is on more than one list, by the sum rule there are $23 + 15 + 19 = 57$ ways to choose a project. ◀

EXAMPLE 14 What is the value of k after the following code, where $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_m$ are positive integers, has been executed?

```
k := 0
for i_1 := 1 to n_1
    k := k + 1
for i_2 := 1 to n_2
    k := k + 1
        .
        .
        .
for i_m := 1 to n_m
    k := k + 1
```

Solution: The initial value of k is zero. This block of code is made up of m different loops. Each time a loop is traversed, 1 is added to k. To determine the value of k after this code has been executed, we need to determine how many times we traverse a loop. Note that there are n_i ways to traverse the ith loop. Because we only traverse one loop at a time, the sum rule shows that the final value of k, which is the number of ways to traverse one of the m loops is $n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_m$. ◀

The sum rule can be phrased in terms of sets as: If $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m$ are pairwise disjoint finite sets, then the number of elements in the union of these sets is the sum of the numbers of elements in the sets. To relate this to our statement of the sum rule, note there are $|A_i|$ ways to choose an element from A_i for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$. Because the sets are pairwise disjoint, when we select an element from one of the sets A_i, we do not also select an element from a different set A_j. Consequently, by the sum rule, because we cannot select an element from two of these sets at the same time, the number of ways to choose an element from one of the sets, which is the number of elements in the union, is

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_m| = |A_1| + |A_2| + \cdots + |A_m| \text{ when } A_i \cap A_j = \quad \text{for all } i, j.$$

This equality applies only when the sets in question are pairwise disjoint. The situation is much more complicated when these sets have elements in common. That situation will be briefly discussed later in this section and discussed in more depth in Chapter 8.

6.1.3 More Complex Counting Problems

Many counting problems cannot be solved using just the sum rule or just the product rule. However, many complicated counting problems can be solved using both of these rules in combination. We begin by counting the number of variable names in the programming language BASIC. (In the exercises, we consider the number of variable names in JAVA.) Then we will count the number of valid passwords subject to a particular set of restrictions.

EXAMPLE 15 In a version of the computer language BASIC, the name of a variable is a string of one or two alphanumeric characters, where uppercase and lowercase letters are not distinguished. (An *alphanumeric* character is either one of the 26 English letters or one of the 10 digits.) Moreover, a variable name must begin with a letter and must be different from the five strings of two characters that are reserved for programming use. How many different variable names are there in this version of BASIC?

Extra Examples

Solution: Let V equal the number of different variable names in this version of BASIC. Let V_1 be the number of these that are one character long and V_2 be the number of these that are two characters long. Then by the sum rule, $V = V_1 + V_2$. Note that $V_1 = 26$, because a one-character variable name must be a letter. Furthermore, by the product rule there are $26 \cdot 36$ strings of length two that begin with a letter and end with an alphanumeric character. However, five of these are excluded, so $V_2 = 26 \cdot 36 - 5 = 931$. Hence, there are $V = V_1 + V_2 = 26 + 931 = 957$ different names for variables in this version of BASIC. ◀

EXAMPLE 16 Each user on a computer system has a password, which is six to eight characters long, where each character is an uppercase letter or a digit. Each password must contain at least one digit. How many possible passwords are there?

Solution: Let P be the total number of possible passwords, and let P_6, P_7, and P_8 denote the number of possible passwords of length 6, 7, and 8, respectively. By the sum rule, $P = P_6 + P_7 + P_8$. We will now find P_6, P_7, and P_8. Finding P_6 directly is difficult. To find P_6 it is easier to find the number of strings of uppercase letters and digits that are six characters long, including those with no digits, and subtract from this the number of strings with no digits. By the product rule, the number of strings of six characters is 36^6, and the number of strings with no digits is 26^6. Hence,

$$P_6 = 36^6 - 26^6 = 2{,}176{,}782{,}336 - 308{,}915{,}776 = 1{,}867{,}866{,}560.$$

Similarly, we have

$$P_7 = 36^7 - 26^7 = 78{,}364{,}164{,}096 - 8{,}031{,}810{,}176 = 70{,}332{,}353{,}920$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} P_8 &= 36^8 - 26^8 = 2{,}821{,}109{,}907{,}456 - 208{,}827{,}064{,}576 \\ &= 2{,}612{,}282{,}842{,}880. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$P = P_6 + P_7 + P_8 = 2{,}684{,}483{,}063{,}360.$$ ◀

Bit Number	0	1	2	3	4	8	16	24	31
Class A	0	netid				hostid			
Class B	1	0	netid				hostid		
Class C	1	1	0	netid				hostid	
Class D	1	1	1	0	Multicast Address				
Class E	1	1	1	1	0	Address			

FIGURE 1 **Internet addresses (IPv4).**

EXAMPLE 17

Links

Counting Internet Addresses In the Internet, which is made up of interconnected physical networks of computers, each computer (or more precisely, each network connection of a computer) is assigned an *Internet address*. In Version 4 of the Internet Protocol (IPv4), still in use today, an address is a string of 32 bits. It begins with a *network number* (*netid*). The netid is followed by a *host number* (*hostid*), which identifies a computer as a member of a particular network.

Three forms of addresses are used, with different numbers of bits used for netids and hostids. **Class A addresses**, used for the largest networks, consist of 0, followed by a 7-bit netid and a 24-bit hostid. **Class B addresses**, used for medium-sized networks, consist of 10, followed by a 14-bit netid and a 16-bit hostid. **Class C addresses**, used for the smallest networks, consist of 110, followed by a 21-bit netid and an 8-bit hostid. There are several restrictions on addresses because of special uses: 1111111 is not available as the netid of a Class A network, and the hostids consisting of all 0s and all 1s are not available for use in any network. A computer on the Internet has either a Class A, a Class B, or a Class C address. (Besides Class A, B, and C addresses, there are also Class D addresses, reserved for use in multicasting when multiple computers are addressed at a single time, consisting of 1110 followed by 28 bits, and Class E addresses, reserved for future use, consisting of 11110 followed by 27 bits. Neither Class D nor Class E addresses are assigned as the IPv4 address of a computer on the Internet.) Figure 1 illustrates IPv4 addressing. (Limitations on the number of Class A and Class B netids have made IPv4 addressing inadequate; IPv6, a new version of IP, uses 128-bit addresses to solve this problem.)

The lack of available IPv4 address has become a crisis!

How many different IPv4 addresses are available for computers on the Internet?

Solution: Let x be the number of available addresses for computers on the Internet, and let x_A, x_B, and x_C denote the number of Class A, Class B, and Class C addresses available, respectively. By the sum rule, $x = x_A + x_B + x_C$.

To find x_A, note that there are $2^7 - 1 = 127$ Class A netids, recalling that the netid 1111111 is unavailable. For each netid, there are $2^{24} - 2 = 16{,}777{,}214$ hostids, recalling that the hostids consisting of all 0s and all 1s are unavailable. Consequently, $x_A = 127 \cdot 16{,}777{,}214 = 2{,}130{,}706{,}178$.

To find x_B and x_C, note that there are $2^{14} = 16{,}384$ Class B netids and $2^{21} = 2{,}097{,}152$ Class C netids. For each Class B netid, there are $2^{16} - 2 = 65{,}534$ hostids, and for each Class C netid, there are $2^8 - 2 = 254$ hostids, recalling that in each network the hostids consisting of all 0s and all 1s are unavailable. Consequently, $x_B = 1{,}073{,}709{,}056$ and $x_C = 532{,}676{,}608$.

We conclude that the total number of IPv4 addresses available is $x = x_A + x_B + x_C = 2{,}130{,}706{,}178 + 1{,}073{,}709{,}056 + 532{,}676{,}608 = 3{,}737{,}091{,}842$. ◀

6.1.4 The Subtraction Rule (Inclusion–Exclusion for Two Sets)

Suppose that a task can be done in one of two ways, but some of the ways to do it are common to both ways. In this situation, we cannot use the sum rule to count the number of ways to do the task. If we add the number of ways to do the tasks in these two ways, we get an overcount of the total number of ways to do it, because the ways to do the task that are common to the two ways are counted twice.

Overcounting is perhaps the most common enumeration error.

To correctly count the number of ways to do the two tasks, we must subtract the number of ways that are counted twice. This leads us to an important counting rule.

THE SUBTRACTION RULE If a task can be done in either n_1 ways or n_2 ways, then the number of ways to do the task is $n_1 + n_2$ minus the number of ways to do the task that are common to the two different ways.

The subtraction rule is also known as the **principle of inclusion–exclusion**, especially when it is used to count the number of elements in the union of two sets. Suppose that A_1 and A_2 are sets. Then, there are $|A_1|$ ways to select an element from A_1 and $|A_2|$ ways to select an element from A_2. The number of ways to select an element from A_1 or from A_2, that is, the number of ways to select an element from their union, is the sum of the number of ways to select an element from A_1 and the number of ways to select an element from A_2, minus the number of ways to select an element that is in both A_1 and A_2. Because there are $|A_1 \cup A_2|$ ways to select an element in either A_1 or in A_2, and $|A_1 \cap A_2|$ ways to select an element common to both sets, we have

$$|A_1 \cup A_2| = |A_1| + |A_2| - |A_1 \cap A_2|.$$

This is the formula given in Section 2.2 for the number of elements in the union of two sets.

Example 18 illustrates how we can solve counting problems using the subtraction principle.

EXAMPLE 18 How many bit strings of length eight either start with a 1 bit or end with the two bits 00?

Extra Examples

Solution: Figure 2 illustrates the three counting problems we need to solve before we can apply the principle of inclusion–exclusion. We can construct a bit string of length eight that either starts with a 1 bit or ends with the two bits 00, by constructing a bit string of length eight beginning with a 1 bit or by constructing a bit string of length eight that ends with the two bits 00. We can construct a bit string of length eight that begins with a 1 in $2^7 = 128$ ways. This follows by the product rule, because the first bit can be chosen in only one way and each of the other seven bits can be chosen in two ways. Similarly, we can construct a bit string of length eight ending with the two bits 00, in $2^6 = 64$ ways. This follows by the product rule, because each of the first six bits can be chosen in two ways and the last two bits can be chosen in only one way.

Some of the ways to construct a bit string of length eight starting with a 1 are the same as the ways to construct a bit string of length eight that ends with the two bits 00. There are $2^5 = 32$ ways to construct such a string. This follows by the product rule, because the first bit can be chosen in only one way, each of the second through the sixth bits can be chosen in two ways, and the last two bits can be chosen in one way. Consequently, the number of bit strings of length eight that begin with a 1 or end with a 00, which equals the number of ways to construct a bit string of length eight that begins with a 1 or that ends with 00, equals $128 + 64 - 32 = 160$. ◀

$$\underline{1}\;\underbrace{\_\;\_\;\_\;\_\;\_\;\_\;\_}_{2^7 = 128 \text{ ways}}$$

$$\underbrace{\_\;\_\;\_\;\_\;\_\;\_}_{2^6 = 64 \text{ ways}}\;\underline{0}\;\underline{0}$$

$$\underline{1}\;\underbrace{\_\;\_\;\_\;\_\;\_}_{2^5 = 32 \text{ ways}}\;\underline{0}\;\underline{0}$$

FIGURE 2 8-Bit strings starting with 1 or ending with 00.

We present an example that illustrates how the formulation of the principle of inclusion–exclusion can be used to solve counting problems.

EXAMPLE 19 A computer company receives 350 applications from college graduates for a job planning a line of new web servers. Suppose that 220 of these applicants majored in computer science, 147

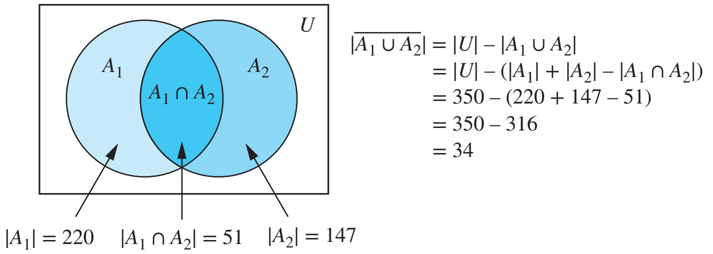


FIGURE 3 **Applicants who majored in neither computer science nor business.**

majored in business, and 51 majored both in computer science and in business. How many of these applicants majored neither in computer science nor in business?

Solution: To find the number of these applicants who majored neither in computer science nor in business, we can subtract the number of students who majored either in computer science or in business (or both) from the total number of applicants. Let A_1 be the set of students who majored in computer science and A_2 the set of students who majored in business. Then $A_1 \cup A_2$ is the set of students who majored in computer science or business (or both), and $A_1 \cap A_2$ is the set of students who majored both in computer science and in business. By the subtraction rule the number of students who majored either in computer science or in business (or both) equals

$$|A_1 \cup A_2| = |A_1| + |A_2| - |A_1 \cap A_2| = 220 + 147 - 51 = 316.$$

We conclude that $350 - 316 = 34$ of the applicants majored neither in computer science nor in business. A Venn diagram for this example is shown in Figure 3. ◀

The subtraction rule, or the principle of inclusion–exclusion, can be generalized to find the number of ways to do one of n different tasks or, equivalently, to find the number of elements in the union of n sets, whenever n is a positive integer. We will study the inclusion–exclusion principle and some of its many applications in Chapter 8.

6.1.5 The Division Rule

We have introduced the product, sum, and subtraction rules for counting. You may wonder whether there is also a division rule for counting. In fact, there is such a rule, which can be useful when solving certain types of enumeration problems.

THE DIVISION RULE There are n/d ways to do a task if it can be done using a procedure that can be carried out in n ways, and for every way w, exactly d of the n ways correspond to way w.

We can restate the division rule in terms of sets: "If the finite set A is the union of n pairwise disjoint subsets each with d elements, then $n = |A|/d$."

We can also formulate the division rule in terms of functions: "If f is a function from A to B where A and B are finite sets, and that for every value $y \in B$ there are exactly d values $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$ (in which case, we say that f is d-to-one), then $|B| = |A|/d$."

Remark: The division rule comes in handy when it appears that a task can be done in n different ways, but it turns out that for each way of doing the task, there are d equivalent ways of doing it. Under these circumstances, we can conclude that there are n/d inequivalent ways of doing the task.

We illustrate the use of the division rule for counting with two examples.

EXAMPLE 20 Suppose that an automated system has been developed that counts the legs of cows in a pasture. Suppose that this system has determined that in a farmer's pasture there are exactly 572 legs. How many cows are there is this pasture, assuming that each cow has four legs and that there are no other animals present?

Solution: Let n be the number of cow legs counted in a pasture. Because each cow has four legs, by the division rule we know that the pasture contains $n/4$ cows. Consequently, the pasture with 572 cow legs has $572/4 = 143$ cows in it. ◀

EXAMPLE 21 How many different ways are there to seat four people around a circular table, where two seatings are considered the same when each person has the same left neighbor and the same right neighbor?

Solution: We arbitrarily select a seat at the table and label it seat 1. We number the rest of the seats in numerical order, proceeding clockwise around the table. Note that are four ways to select the person for seat 1, three ways to select the person for seat 2, two ways to select the person for seat 3, and one way to select the person for seat 4. Thus, there are $4! = 24$ ways to order the given four people for these seats. However, each of the four choices for seat 1 leads to the same arrangement, as we distinguish two arrangements only when one of the people has a different immediate left or immediate right neighbor. Because there are four ways to choose the person for seat 1, by the division rule there are $24/4 = 6$ different seating arrangements of four people around the circular table. ◀

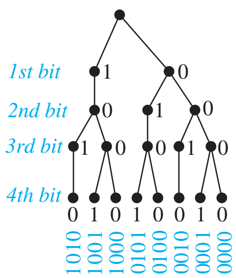


FIGURE 4 **Bit strings of length four without consecutive 1s.**

6.1.6 Tree Diagrams

Counting problems can be solved using **tree diagrams**. A tree consists of a root, a number of branches leaving the root, and possible additional branches leaving the endpoints of other branches. (We will study trees in detail in Chapter 11.) To use trees in counting, we use a branch to represent each possible choice. We represent the possible outcomes by the leaves, which are the endpoints of branches not having other branches starting at them.

Note that when a tree diagram is used to solve a counting problem, the number of choices of which branch to follow to reach a leaf can vary as in Example 22.

EXAMPLE 22 How many bit strings of length four do not have two consecutive 1s?

Solution: The tree diagram in Figure 4 displays all bit strings of length four without two consecutive 1s. We see that there are eight bit strings of length four without two consecutive 1s. ◀

EXAMPLE 23 A playoff between two teams consists of at most five games. The first team that wins three games wins the playoff. In how many different ways can the playoff occur?

Solution: The tree diagram in Figure 5 displays all the ways the playoff can proceed, with the winner of each game shown. We see that there are 20 different ways for the playoff to occur. ◀

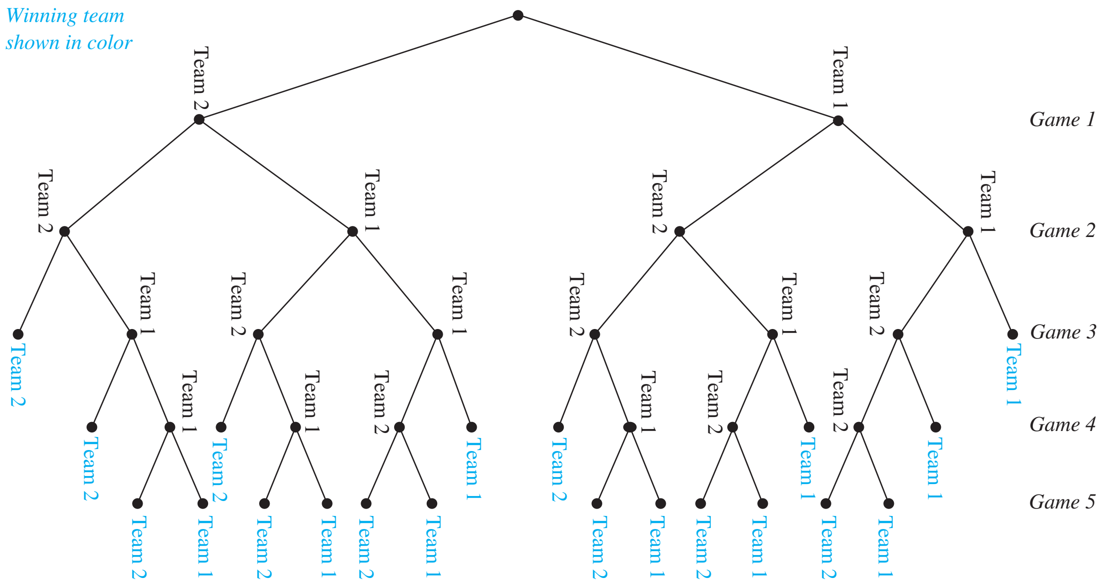


FIGURE 5 **Best three games out of five playoffs.**

EXAMPLE 24 Suppose that "I Love New Jersey" T-shirts come in five different sizes: S, M, L, XL, and XXL. Further suppose that each size comes in four colors, white, red, green, and black, except for XL, which comes only in red, green, and black, and XXL, which comes only in green and black. How many different shirts does a souvenir shop have to stock to have at least one of each available size and color of the T-shirt?

Solution: The tree diagram in Figure 6 displays all possible size and color pairs. It follows that the souvenir shop owner needs to stock 17 different T-shirts. ◀

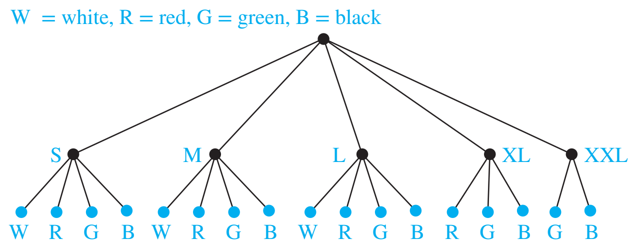


FIGURE 6 **Counting varieties of T-shirts.**

Exercises

1. There are 18 mathematics majors and 325 computer science majors at a college.

a) In how many ways can two representatives be picked so that one is a mathematics major and the other is a computer science major?

b) In how many ways can one representative be picked who is either a mathematics major or a computer science major?

2. An office building contains 27 floors and has 37 offices on each floor. How many offices are in the building?

3. A multiple-choice test contains 10 questions. There are four possible answers for each question.

a) In how many ways can a student answer the questions on the test if the student answers every question?

b) In how many ways can a student answer the questions on the test if the student can leave answers blank?

4. A particular brand of shirt comes in 12 colors, has a male version and a female version, and comes in three sizes for each sex. How many different types of this shirt are made?

5. Six different airlines fly from New York to Denver and seven fly from Denver to San Francisco. How many different pairs of airlines can you choose on which to book a trip from New York to San Francisco via Denver, when you pick an airline for the flight to Denver and an airline for the continuation flight to San Francisco?

6. There are four major auto routes from Boston to Detroit and six from Detroit to Los Angeles. How many major auto routes are there from Boston to Los Angeles via Detroit?

7. How many different three-letter initials can people have?

8. How many different three-letter initials with none of the letters repeated can people have?

9. How many different three-letter initials are there that begin with an A?

10. How many bit strings are there of length eight?

11. How many bit strings of length ten both begin and end with a 1?

12. How many bit strings are there of length six or less, not counting the empty string?

13. How many bit strings with length not exceeding n, where n is a positive integer, consist entirely of 1s, not counting the empty string?

14. How many bit strings of length n, where n is a positive integer, start and end with 1s?

15. How many strings are there of lowercase letters of length four or less, not counting the empty string?

16. How many strings are there of four lowercase letters that have the letter x in them?

17. How many strings of five ASCII characters contain the character @ (“at” sign) at least once? [*Note:* There are 128 different ASCII characters.]

18. How many 5-element DNA sequences

a) end with A?
b) start with T and end with G?
c) contain only A and T?
d) do not contain C?

19. How many 6-element RNA sequences

a) do not contain U?
b) end with GU?
c) start with C?
d) contain only A or U?

20. How many positive integers between 5 and 31

a) are divisible by 3? Which integers are these?
b) are divisible by 4? Which integers are these?
c) are divisible by 3 and by 4? Which integers are these?

21. How many positive integers between 50 and 100

a) are divisible by 7? Which integers are these?
b) are divisible by 11? Which integers are these?
c) are divisible by both 7 and 11? Which integers are these?

22. How many positive integers less than 1000

a) are divisible by 7?
b) are divisible by 7 but not by 11?
c) are divisible by both 7 and 11?
d) are divisible by either 7 or 11?
e) are divisible by exactly one of 7 and 11?
f) are divisible by neither 7 nor 11?
g) have distinct digits?
h) have distinct digits and are even?

23. How many positive integers between 100 and 999 inclusive

a) are divisible by 7?
b) are odd?
c) have the same three decimal digits?
d) are not divisible by 4?
e) are divisible by 3 or 4?
f) are not divisible by either 3 or 4?
g) are divisible by 3 but not by 4?
h) are divisible by 3 and 4?

24. How many positive integers between 1000 and 9999 inclusive

a) are divisible by 9?
b) are even?
c) have distinct digits?
d) are not divisible by 3?
e) are divisible by 5 or 7?
f) are not divisible by either 5 or 7?
g) are divisible by 5 but not by 7?
h) are divisible by 5 and 7?

25. How many strings of three decimal digits

a) do not contain the same digit three times?
b) begin with an odd digit?
c) have exactly two digits that are 4s?

26. How many strings of four decimal digits

a) do not contain the same digit twice?
b) end with an even digit?
c) have exactly three digits that are 9s?

27. A committee is formed consisting of one representative from each of the 50 states in the United States, where the representative from a state is either the governor or one of the two senators from that state. How many ways are there to form this committee?

28. How many license plates can be made using either three digits followed by three uppercase English letters or three uppercase English letters followed by three digits?

29. How many license plates can be made using either two uppercase English letters followed by four digits or two digits followed by four uppercase English letters?

30. How many license plates can be made using either three uppercase English letters followed by three digits or four uppercase English letters followed by two digits?

31. How many license plates can be made using either two or three uppercase English letters followed by either two or three digits?

32. How many strings of eight uppercase English letters are there

a) if letters can be repeated?
b) if no letter can be repeated?
c) that start with X, if letters can be repeated?
d) that start with X, if no letter can be repeated?
e) that start and end with X, if letters can be repeated?
f) that start with the letters BO (in that order), if letters can be repeated?
g) that start and end with the letters BO (in that order), if letters can be repeated?
h) that start or end with the letters BO (in that order), if letters can be repeated?

33. How many strings of eight English letters are there

a) that contain no vowels, if letters can be repeated?
b) that contain no vowels, if letters cannot be repeated?
c) that start with a vowel, if letters can be repeated?
d) that start with a vowel, if letters cannot be repeated?
e) that contain at least one vowel, if letters can be repeated?
f) that contain exactly one vowel, if letters can be repeated?
g) that start with X and contain at least one vowel, if letters can be repeated?
h) that start and end with X and contain at least one vowel, if letters can be repeated?

34. How many different functions are there from a set with 10 elements to sets with the following numbers of elements?

a) 2 **b)** 3 **c)** 4 **d)** 5

35. How many one-to-one functions are there from a set with five elements to sets with the following number of elements?

a) 4 **b)** 5 **c)** 6 **d)** 7

36. How many functions are there from the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, where n is a positive integer, to the set $\{0, 1\}$?

37. How many functions are there from the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, where n is a positive integer, to the set $\{0, 1\}$

a) that are one-to-one?
b) that assign 0 to both 1 and n?
c) that assign 1 to exactly one of the positive integers less than n?

38. How many partial functions (see Section 2.3) are there from a set with five elements to sets with each of these number of elements?

a) 1 **b)** 2 **c)** 5 **d)** 9

39. How many partial functions (see Definition 13 of Section 2.3) are there from a set with m elements to a set with n elements, where m and n are positive integers?

40. How many subsets of a set with 100 elements have more than one element?

41. A **palindrome** is a string whose reversal is identical to the string. How many bit strings of length n are palindromes?

42. How many 4-element DNA sequences

a) do not contain the base T?
b) contain the sequence ACG?
c) contain all four bases A, T, C, and G?
d) contain exactly three of the four bases A, T, C, and G?

43. How many 4-element RNA sequences

a) contain the base U?
b) do not contain the sequence CUG?
c) do not contain all four bases A, U, C, and G?
d) contain exactly two of the four bases A, U, C, and G?

44. On each of the 22 work days in a particular month, every employee of a start-up venture was sent a company communication. If a total of 4642 total company communications were sent, how many employees does the company have, assuming that no staffing changes were made that month?

45. At a large university, 434 freshmen, 883 sophomores, and 43 juniors are enrolled in an introductory algorithms course. How many sections of this course need to be scheduled to accommodate all these students if each section contains 34 students?

46. How many ways are there to seat four of a group of ten people around a circular table where two seatings are considered the same when everyone has the same immediate left and immediate right neighbor?

47. How many ways are there to seat six people around a circular table where two seatings are considered the same when everyone has the same two neighbors without regard to whether they are right or left neighbors?

48. In how many ways can a photographer at a wedding arrange 6 people in a row from a group of 10 people, where the bride and the groom are among these 10 people, if

a) the bride must be in the picture?
b) both the bride and groom must be in the picture?
c) exactly one of the bride and the groom is in the picture?

49. In how many ways can a photographer at a wedding arrange six people in a row, including the bride and groom, if

a) the bride must be next to the groom?
b) the bride is not next to the groom?
c) the bride is positioned somewhere to the left of the groom?

50. How many bit strings of length seven either begin with two 0s or end with three 1s?

51. How many bit strings of length 10 either begin with three 0s or end with two 0s?

***52.** How many bit strings of length 10 contain either five consecutive 0s or five consecutive 1s?

****53.** How many bit strings of length eight contain either three consecutive 0s or four consecutive 1s?

54. Every student in a discrete mathematics class is either a computer science or a mathematics major or is a joint major in these two subjects. How many students are in the class if there are 38 computer science majors (including joint majors), 23 mathematics majors (including joint majors), and 7 joint majors?

55. How many positive integers not exceeding 100 are divisible either by 4 or by 6?

56. How many different initials can someone have if a person has at least two, but no more than five, different initials? Assume that each initial is one of the 26 uppercase letters of the English language.

57. Suppose that a password for a computer system must have at least 8, but no more than 12, characters, where each character in the password is a lowercase English letter, an uppercase English letter, a digit, or one of the six special characters $*$, $>$, $<$, !, $+$, and $=$.

a) How many different passwords are available for this computer system?

b) How many of these passwords contain at least one occurrence of at least one of the six special characters?

c) Using your answer to part (a), determine how long it takes a hacker to try every possible password, assuming that it takes one nanosecond for a hacker to check each possible password.

58. The name of a variable in the C programming language is a string that can contain uppercase letters, lowercase letters, digits, or underscores. Further, the first character in the string must be a letter, either uppercase or lowercase, or an underscore. If the name of a variable is determined by its first eight characters, how many different variables can be named in C? (Note that the name of a variable may contain fewer than eight characters.)

59. The name of a variable in the JAVA programming language is a string of between 1 and 65,535 characters, inclusive, where each character can be an uppercase or a lowercase letter, a dollar sign, an underscore, or a digit, except that the first character must not be a digit. Determine the number of different variable names in JAVA.

60. The International Telecommunications Union (ITU) specifies that a telephone number must consist of a country code with between 1 and 3 digits, except that the code 0 is not available for use as a country code, followed by a number with at most 15 digits. How many available possible telephone numbers are there that satisfy these restrictions?

61. Suppose that at some future time every telephone in the world is assigned a number that contains a country code 1 to 3 digits long, that is, of the form X, XX, or XXX, followed by a 10-digit telephone number of the form NXX-NXX-$XXXX$ (as described in Example 8). How many different telephone numbers would be available worldwide under this numbering plan?

62. A key in the Vigenère cryptosystem is a string of English letters, where the case of the letters does not matter. How many different keys for this cryptosystem are there with three, four, five, or six letters?

63. A wired equivalent privacy (WEP) key for a wireless fidelity (WiFi) network is a string of either 10, 26, or 58 hexadecimal digits. How many different WEP keys are there?

64. Suppose that p and q are prime numbers and that $n = pq$. Use the principle of inclusion–exclusion to find the number of positive integers not exceeding n that are relatively prime to n.

65. Use the principle of inclusion–exclusion to find the number of positive integers less than 1,000,000 that are not divisible by either 4 or by 6.

66. Use a tree diagram to find the number of bit strings of length four with no three consecutive 0s.

67. How many ways are there to arrange the letters a, b, c, and d such that a is not followed immediately by b?

68. Use a tree diagram to find the number of ways that the World Series can occur, where the first team that wins four games out of seven wins the series.

69. Use a tree diagram to determine the number of subsets of $\{3, 7, 9, 11, 24\}$ with the property that the sum of the elements in the subset is less than 28.

70. a) Suppose that a store sells six varieties of soft drinks: cola, ginger ale, orange, root beer, lemonade, and cream soda. Use a tree diagram to determine the number of different types of bottles the store must stock to have all varieties available in all size bottles if all varieties are available in 12-ounce bottles, all but lemonade are available in 20-ounce bottles, only cola and ginger ale are available in 32-ounce bottles, and all but lemonade and cream soda are available in 64-ounce bottles?

b) Answer the question in part (a) using counting rules.

71. a) Suppose that a popular style of running shoe is available for both men and women. The woman's shoe comes in sizes 6, 7, 8, and 9, and the man's shoe comes in sizes 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12. The man's shoe comes in white and black, while the woman's shoe comes in white, red, and black. Use a tree diagram to determine the number of different shoes that a store has to stock to have at least one pair of this type of running shoe for all available sizes and colors for both men and women.

b) Answer the question in part (a) using counting rules.

72. Determine the number of matches played in a single-elimination tournament with n players, where for each game between two players the winner goes on, but the loser is eliminated.

73. Determine the minimum and the maximum number of matches that can be played in a double-elimination tournament with n players, where after each game between two players, the winner goes on and the loser goes on if and only if this is not a second loss.

***74.** Use the product rule to show that there are 2^{2^n} different truth tables for propositions in n variables.

75. Use mathematical induction to prove the sum rule for m tasks from the sum rule for two tasks.

76. Use mathematical induction to prove the product rule for m tasks from the product rule for two tasks.

77. How many diagonals does a convex polygon with n sides have? (Recall that a polygon is convex if every line segment connecting two points in the interior or boundary of the polygon lies entirely within this set and that a diagonal of a polygon is a line segment connecting two vertices that are not adjacent.)

78. Data are transmitted over the Internet in **datagrams**, which are structured blocks of bits. Each datagram contains header information organized into a maximum of 14 different fields (specifying many things, including the source and destination addresses) and a data area that contains the actual data that are transmitted. One of the 14 header fields is the **header length field** (denoted by HLEN), which is specified by the protocol to be 4 bits long and that specifies the header length in terms of 32-bit blocks of bits. For example, if HLEN $= 0110$, the header is made up of six 32-bit blocks. Another of the 14 header fields is the 16-bit-long **total length field** (denoted by TOTAL LENGTH), which specifies the length in bits of the entire datagram, including both the header fields and the data area. The length of the data area is the total length of the datagram minus the length of the header.

a) The largest possible value of TOTAL LENGTH (which is 16 bits long) determines the maximum total length in octets (blocks of 8 bits) of an Internet datagram. What is this value?

b) The largest possible value of HLEN (which is 4 bits long) determines the maximum total header length in 32-bit blocks. What is this value? What is the maximum total header length in octets?

c) The minimum (and most common) header length is 20 octets. What is the maximum total length in octets of the data area of an Internet datagram?

d) How many different strings of octets in the data area can be transmitted if the header length is 20 octets and the total length is as long as possible?

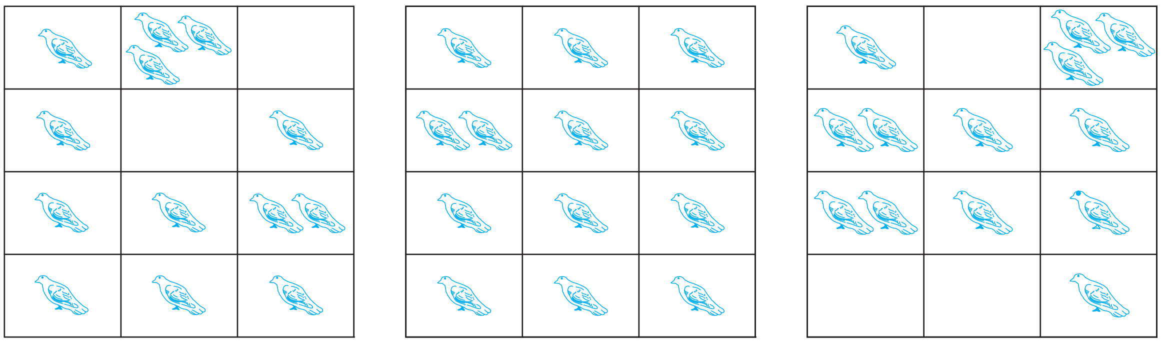
6.2 The Pigeonhole Principle

6.2.1 Introduction

Links

Suppose that a flock of 20 pigeons flies into a set of 19 pigeonholes to roost. Because there are 20 pigeons but only 19 pigeonholes, a least one of these 19 pigeonholes must have at least two pigeons in it. To see why this is true, note that if each pigeonhole had at most one pigeon in it, at most 19 pigeons, one per hole, could be accommodated. This illustrates a general principle called the **pigeonhole principle**, which states that if there are more pigeons than pigeonholes, then there must be at least one pigeonhole with at least two pigeons in it (see Figure 1). This principle is extremely useful; it applies to much more than pigeons and pigeonholes.

THEOREM 1 **THE PIGEONHOLE PRINCIPLE** If k is a positive integer and $k + 1$ or more objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing two or more of the objects.



(a) (b) (c)

FIGURE 1 **There are more pigeons than pigeonholes.**

Proof: We prove the pigeonhole principle using a proof by contraposition. Suppose that none of the k boxes contains more than one object. Then the total number of objects would be at most k. This is a contradiction, because there are at least $k + 1$ objects. ◁

The pigeonhole principle is also called the **Dirichlet drawer principle**, after the nineteenth-century German mathematician G. Lejeune Dirichlet, who often used this principle in his work. (Dirichlet was not the first person to use this principle; a demonstration that there were at least two Parisians with the same number of hairs on their heads dates back to the 17th century—see Exercise 35.) It is an important additional proof technique supplementing those we have developed in earlier chapters. We introduce it in this chapter because of its many important applications to combinatorics.

We will illustrate the usefulness of the pigeonhole principle. We first show that it can be used to prove a useful corollary about functions.

COROLLARY 1 A function f from a set with $k + 1$ or more elements to a set with k elements is not one-to-one.

Proof: Suppose that for each element y in the codomain of f we have a box that contains all elements x of the domain of f such that $f(x) = y$. Because the domain contains $k + 1$ or more elements and the codomain contains only k elements, the pigeonhole principle tells us that one of these boxes contains two or more elements x of the domain. This means that f cannot be one-to-one. ◁

Examples 1–3 show how the pigeonhole principle is used.

EXAMPLE 1 Among any group of 367 people, there must be at least two with the same birthday, because there are only 366 possible birthdays. ◀

EXAMPLE 2 In any group of 27 English words, there must be at least two that begin with the same letter, because there are 26 letters in the English alphabet. ◀

EXAMPLE 3 How many students must be in a class to guarantee that at least two students receive the same score on the final exam, if the exam is graded on a scale from 0 to 100 points?

Solution: There are 101 possible scores on the final. The pigeonhole principle shows that among any 102 students there must be at least 2 students with the same score. ◀

Links

G. LEJEUNE DIRICHLET (1805–1859) G. Lejeune Dirichlet was born into a Belgian family living near Cologne, Germany. His father was a postmaster. He became passionate about mathematics at a young age. He was spending all his spare money on mathematics books by the time he entered secondary school in Bonn at the age of 12. At 14 he entered the Jesuit College in Cologne, and at 16 he began his studies at the University of Paris. In 1825 he returned to Germany and was appointed to a position at the University of Breslau. In 1828 he moved to the University of Berlin. In 1855 he was chosen to succeed Gauss at the University of Göttingen. Dirichlet is said to be the first person to master Gauss's *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae*, which appeared 20 years earlier. He is said to have kept a copy at his side even when he traveled. Dirichlet made many important discoveries in number theory, including the theorem that there are infinitely many primes in arithmetical progressions $an + b$ when a and b are relatively prime. He proved the $n = 5$ case of Fermat's last theorem, that there are no nontrivial solutions in integers to $x^5 + y^5 = z^5$. Dirichlet also made many contributions to analysis. Dirichlet was considered to be an excellent teacher who could explain ideas with great clarity. He was married to Rebecka Mendelssohn, one of the sisters of the composer Felix Mendelssohn.

The pigeonhole principle is a useful tool in many proofs, including proofs of surprising results, such as that given in Example 4.

EXAMPLE 4 Show that for every integer n there is a multiple of n that has only 0s and 1s in its decimal expansion.

Extra Examples

Solution: Let n be a positive integer. Consider the $n + 1$ integers $1, 11, 111, \ldots, 11 \ldots 1$ (where the last integer in this list is the integer with $n + 1$ 1s in its decimal expansion). Note that there are n possible remainders when an integer is divided by n. Because there are $n + 1$ integers in this list, by the pigeonhole principle there must be two with the same remainder when divided by n. The larger of these integers less the smaller one is a multiple of n, which has a decimal expansion consisting entirely of 0s and 1s. ◀

6.2.2 The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

The pigeonhole principle states that there must be at least two objects in the same box when there are more objects than boxes. However, even more can be said when the number of objects exceeds a multiple of the number of boxes. For instance, among any set of 21 decimal digits there must be 3 that are the same. This follows because when 21 objects are distributed into 10 boxes, one box must have more than 2 objects.

THEOREM 2 **THE GENERALIZED PIGEONHOLE PRINCIPLE** If N objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ objects.

Proof: We will use a proof by contraposition. Suppose that none of the boxes contains more than $\lceil N/k \rceil - 1$ objects. Then, the total number of objects is at most

$$k\left(\left\lceil \frac{N}{k} \right\rceil - 1\right) < k\left(\left(\frac{N}{k} + 1\right) - 1\right) = N,$$

where the inequality $\lceil N/k \rceil < (N/k) + 1$ has been used. Thus, the total number of objects is less than N. This completes the proof by contraposition. ◁

A common type of problem asks for the minimum number of objects such that at least r of these objects must be in one of k boxes when these objects are distributed among the boxes. When we have N objects, the generalized pigeonhole principle tells us there must be at least r objects in one of the boxes as long as $\lceil N/k \rceil \geq r$. The smallest integer N with $N/k > r - 1$, namely, $N = k(r - 1) + 1$, is the smallest integer satisfying the inequality $\lceil N/k \rceil \geq r$. Could a smaller value of N suffice? The answer is no, because if we had $k(r - 1)$ objects, we could put $r - 1$ of them in each of the k boxes and no box would have at least r objects.

When thinking about problems of this type, it is useful to consider how you can avoid having at least r objects in one of the boxes as you add successive objects. To avoid adding a rth object to any box, you eventually end up with $r - 1$ objects in each box. There is no way to add the next object without putting an rth object in that box.

Examples 5–8 illustrate how the generalized pigeonhole principle is applied.

EXAMPLE 5 Among 100 people there are at least $\lceil 100/12 \rceil = 9$ who were born in the same month. ◀

EXAMPLE 6 What is the minimum number of students required in a discrete mathematics class to be sure that at least six will receive the same grade, if there are five possible grades, A, B, C, D, and F?

Extra Examples

Solution: The minimum number of students needed to ensure that at least six students receive the same grade is the smallest integer N such that $\lceil N/5 \rceil = 6$. The smallest such integer is $N = 5 \cdot 5 + 1 = 26$. If you have only 25 students, it is possible for there to be five who have received each grade so that no six students have received the same grade. Thus, 26 is the minimum number of students needed to ensure that at least six students will receive the same grade. ◀

EXAMPLE 7 **a)** How many cards must be selected from a standard deck of 52 cards to guarantee that at least three cards of the same suit are selected?
b) How many must be selected from a standard deck of 52 cards to guarantee that at least three hearts are selected?

A standard deck of 52 cards has 13 kinds of cards, with four cards of each of kind, one in each of the four suits, hearts, diamonds, spades, and clubs.

Solution: **a)** Suppose there are four boxes, one for each suit, and as cards are selected they are placed in the box reserved for cards of that suit. Using the generalized pigeonhole principle, we see that if N cards are selected, there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/4 \rceil$ cards. Consequently, we know that at least three cards of one suit are selected if $\lceil N/4 \rceil \geq 3$. The smallest integer N such that $\lceil N/4 \rceil \geq 3$ is $N = 2 \cdot 4 + 1 = 9$, so nine cards suffice. Note that if eight cards are selected, it is possible to have two cards of each suit, so more than eight cards are needed. Consequently, nine cards must be selected to guarantee that at least three cards of one suit are chosen. One good way to think about this is to note that after the eighth card is chosen, there is no way to avoid having a third card of some suit.

b) We do not use the generalized pigeonhole principle to answer this question, because we want to make sure that there are three hearts, not just three cards of one suit. Note that in the worst case, we can select all the clubs, diamonds, and spades, 39 cards in all, before we select a single heart. The next three cards will be all hearts, so we may need to select 42 cards to get three hearts. ◀

EXAMPLE 8 What is the least number of area codes needed to guarantee that the 25 million phones in a state can be assigned distinct 10-digit telephone numbers? (Assume that telephone numbers are of the form *NXX-NXX-XXXX*, where the first three digits form the area code, N represents a digit from 2 to 9 inclusive, and X represents any digit.)

Solution: There are eight million different phone numbers of the form *NXX-XXXX* (as shown in Example 8 of Section 6.1). Hence, by the generalized pigeonhole principle, among 25 million telephones, at least $\lceil 25{,}000{,}000/8{,}000{,}000 \rceil = 4$ of them must have identical phone numbers. Hence, at least four area codes are required to ensure that all 10-digit numbers are different. ◀

Example 9, although not an application of the generalized pigeonhole principle, makes use of similar principles.

EXAMPLE 9 Suppose that a computer science laboratory has 15 workstations and 10 servers. A cable can be used to directly connect a workstation to a server. For each server, only one direct connection to that server can be active at any time. We want to guarantee that at any time any set of 10 or fewer workstations can simultaneously access different servers via direct connections. Although we could do this by connecting every workstation directly to every server (using 150 connections), what is the minimum number of direct connections needed to achieve this goal?

Solution: Suppose that we label the workstations $W_1, W_2, \ldots, W_{15}$ and the servers $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{10}$. First, we would like to find a way for there to be far fewer than 150 direct connections between workstations and servers to achieve our goal. One promising approach is to directly connect W_k to S_k for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, 10$ and then to connect each of $W_{11}, W_{12}, W_{13}, W_{14}$, and W_{15} to all

10 servers. This gives us a total of $10 + 5 \cdot 10 = 60$ direct connections. We need to determine whether with this configuration any set of 10 or fewer workstations can simultaneously access different servers. We note that if workstation W_j is included with $1 \leq j \leq 10$, it can access server S_j, and for each workstation W_k with $k \geq 11$ included, there must be a corresponding workstation W_j with $1 \leq j \leq 10$ not included, so W_k can access server S_j. (This follows because there are at least as many available servers S_j as there are workstations W_j with $1 \leq j \leq 10$ not included.) So, any set of 10 or fewer workstations are able to simultaneously access different servers.

But can we use fewer than 60 direct connections? Suppose there are fewer than 60 direct connections between workstations and servers. Then some server would be connected to at most $\lfloor 59/10 \rfloor = 5$ workstations. (If all servers were connected to at least six workstations, there would be at least $6 \cdot 10 = 60$ direct connections.) This means that the remaining nine servers are not enough for the other 10 or more workstations to simultaneously access different servers. Consequently, at least 60 direct connections are needed. It follows that 60 is the answer. ◀

6.2.3 Some Elegant Applications of the Pigeonhole Principle

In many interesting applications of the pigeonhole principle, the objects to be placed in boxes must be chosen in a clever way. A few such applications will be described here.

EXAMPLE 10 During a month with 30 days, a baseball team plays at least one game a day, but no more than 45 games. Show that there must be a period of some number of consecutive days during which the team must play exactly 14 games.

Solution: Let a_j be the number of games played on or before the jth day of the month. Then $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{30}$ is an increasing sequence of distinct positive integers, with $1 \leq a_j \leq 45$. Moreover, $a_1 + 14, a_2 + 14, \ldots, a_{30} + 14$ is also an increasing sequence of distinct positive integers, with $15 \leq a_j + 14 \leq 59$.

The 60 positive integers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{30}, a_1 + 14, a_2 + 14, \ldots, a_{30} + 14$ are all less than or equal to 59. Hence, by the pigeonhole principle two of these integers are equal. Because the integers $a_j, j = 1, 2, \ldots, 30$ are all distinct and the integers $a_j + 14, j = 1, 2, \ldots, 30$ are all distinct, there must be indices i and j with $a_i = a_j + 14$. This means that exactly 14 games were played from day $j + 1$ to day i. ◀

EXAMPLE 11 Show that among any $n + 1$ positive integers not exceeding $2n$ there must be an integer that divides one of the other integers.

Solution: Write each of the $n + 1$ integers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n+1}$ as a power of 2 times an odd integer. In other words, let $a_j = 2^{k_j} q_j$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n + 1$, where k_j is a nonnegative integer and q_j is odd. The integers $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_{n+1}$ are all odd positive integers less than $2n$. Because there are only n odd positive integers less than $2n$, it follows from the pigeonhole principle that two of the integers $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_{n+1}$ must be equal. Therefore, there are distinct integers i and j such that $q_i = q_j$. Let q be the common value of q_i and q_j. Then, $a_i = 2^{k_i} q$ and $a_j = 2^{k_j} q$. It follows that if $k_i < k_j$, then a_i divides a_j; while if $k_i > k_j$, then a_j divides a_i. ◀

A clever application of the pigeonhole principle shows the existence of an increasing or a decreasing subsequence of a certain length in a sequence of distinct integers. We review some definitions before this application is presented. Suppose that $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_N$ is a sequence of real numbers. A **subsequence** of this sequence is a sequence of the form $a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, \ldots, a_{i_m}$, where $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \cdots < i_m \leq N$. Hence, a subsequence is a sequence obtained from the original sequence by including some of the terms of the original sequence in their original order, and perhaps not including other terms. A sequence is called **strictly increasing** if each term is larger than the one that precedes it, and it is called **strictly decreasing** if each term is smaller than the one that precedes it.

THEOREM 3 Every sequence of $n^2 + 1$ distinct real numbers contains a subsequence of length $n + 1$ that is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.

We give an example before presenting the proof of Theorem 3.

EXAMPLE 12 The sequence 8, 11, 9, 1, 4, 6, 12, 10, 5, 7 contains 10 terms. Note that $10 = 3^2 + 1$. There are four strictly increasing subsequences of length four, namely, 1, 4, 6, 12; 1, 4, 6, 7; 1, 4, 6, 10; and 1, 4, 5, 7. There is also a strictly decreasing subsequence of length four, namely, 11, 9, 6, 5. ◀

The proof of the theorem will now be given.

Proof: Let $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n^2+1}$ be a sequence of $n^2 + 1$ distinct real numbers. Associate an ordered pair with each term of the sequence, namely, associate (i_k, d_k) to the term a_k, where i_k is the length of the longest increasing subsequence starting at a_k, and d_k is the length of the longest decreasing subsequence starting at a_k.

Suppose that there are no increasing or decreasing subsequences of length $n + 1$. Then i_k and d_k are both positive integers less than or equal to n, for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n^2 + 1$. Hence, by the product rule there are n^2 possible ordered pairs for (i_k, d_k). By the pigeonhole principle, two of these $n^2 + 1$ ordered pairs are equal. In other words, there exist terms a_s and a_t, with $s < t$ such that $i_s = i_t$ and $d_s = d_t$. We will show that this is impossible. Because the terms of the sequence are distinct, either $a_s < a_t$ or $a_s > a_t$. If $a_s < a_t$, then, because $i_s = i_t$, an increasing subsequence of length $i_t + 1$ can be built starting at a_s, by taking a_s followed by an increasing subsequence of length i_t beginning at a_t. This is a contradiction. Similarly, if $a_s > a_t$, the same reasoning shows that d_s must be greater than d_t, which is a contradiction. ◁

Links

The final example shows how the generalized pigeonhole principle can be applied to an important part of combinatorics called **Ramsey theory**, after the English mathematician F. P. Ramsey. In general, Ramsey theory deals with the distribution of subsets of elements of sets.

EXAMPLE 13 Assume that in a group of six people, each pair of individuals consists of two friends or two enemies. Show that there are either three mutual friends or three mutual enemies in the group.

Solution: Let A be one of the six people. Of the five other people in the group, there are either three or more who are friends of A, or three or more who are enemies of A. This follows from

Links

Courtesy of Stephen Frank Burch

FRANK PLUMPTON RAMSEY (1903–1930) Frank Plumpton Ramsey, son of the president of Magdalene College, Cambridge, was educated at Winchester and Trinity Colleges. After graduating in 1923, he was elected a fellow of King's College, Cambridge, where he spent the remainder of his life. Ramsey made important contributions to mathematical logic. What we now call Ramsey theory began with his clever combinatorial arguments, published in the paper "On a Problem of Formal Logic." Ramsey also made contributions to the mathematical theory of economics. He was noted as an excellent lecturer on the foundations of mathematics. According to one of his brothers, he was interested in almost everything, including English literature and politics. Ramsey was married and had two daughters. His death at the age of 26 resulting from chronic liver problems deprived the mathematical community and Cambridge University of a brilliant young scholar.

the generalized pigeonhole principle, because when five objects are divided into two sets, one of the sets has at least $\lceil 5/2 \rceil = 3$ elements. In the former case, suppose that B, C, and D are friends of A. If any two of these three individuals are friends, then these two and A form a group of three mutual friends. Otherwise, B, C, and D form a set of three mutual enemies. The proof in the latter case, when there are three or more enemies of A, proceeds in a similar manner. ◀

The **Ramsey number** $R(m, n)$, where m and n are positive integers greater than or equal to 2, denotes the minimum number of people at a party such that there are either m mutual friends or n mutual enemies, assuming that every pair of people at the party are friends or enemies. Example 13 shows that $R(3, 3) \leq 6$. We conclude that $R(3, 3) = 6$ because in a group of five people where every two people are friends or enemies, there may not be three mutual friends or three mutual enemies (see Exercise 28).

It is possible to prove some useful properties about Ramsey numbers, but for the most part it is difficult to find their exact values. Note that by symmetry it can be shown that $R(m, n) = R(n, m)$ (see Exercise 32). We also have $R(2, n) = n$ for every positive integer $n \geq 2$ (see Exercise 31). The exact values of only nine Ramsey numbers $R(m, n)$ with $3 \leq m \leq n$ are known, including $R(4, 4) = 18$. Only bounds are known for many other Ramsey numbers, including $R(5, 5)$, which is known to satisfy $43 \leq R(5, 5) \leq 49$. The reader interested in learning more about Ramsey numbers should consult [MiRo91] or [GrRoSp90].

Exercises

1. Show that in any set of six classes, each meeting regularly once a week on a particular day of the week, there must be two that meet on the same day, assuming that no classes are held on weekends.

2. Show that if there are 30 students in a class, then at least two have last names that begin with the same letter.

3. A drawer contains a dozen brown socks and a dozen black socks, all unmatched. A man takes socks out at random in the dark.

- **a)** How many socks must he take out to be sure that he has at least two socks of the same color?
- **b)** How many socks must he take out to be sure that he has at least two black socks?

4. A bowl contains 10 red balls and 10 blue balls. A woman selects balls at random without looking at them.

- **a)** How many balls must she select to be sure of having at least three balls of the same color?
- **b)** How many balls must she select to be sure of having at least three blue balls?

5. Undergraduate students at a college belong to one of four groups depending on the year in which they are expected to graduate. Each student must choose one of 21 different majors. How many students are needed to assure that there are two students expected to graduate in the same year who have the same major?

6. There are six professors teaching the introductory discrete mathematics class at a university. The same final exam is given by all six professors. If the lowest possible score on the final is 0 and the highest possible score is 100, how many students must there be to guarantee that there are two students with the same professor who earned the same final examination score?

7. Show that among any group of five (not necessarily consecutive) integers, there are two with the same remainder when divided by 4.

8. Let d be a positive integer. Show that among any group of $d + 1$ (not necessarily consecutive) integers there are two with exactly the same remainder when they are divided by d.

9. Let n be a positive integer. Show that in any set of n consecutive integers there is exactly one divisible by n.

10. Show that if f is a function from S to T, where S and T are finite sets with $|S| > |T|$, then there are elements s_1 and s_2 in S such that $f(s_1) = f(s_2)$, or in other words, f is not one-to-one.

11. What is the minimum number of students, each of whom comes from one of the 50 states, who must be enrolled in a university to guarantee that there are at least 100 who come from the same state?

***12.** Let (x_i, y_i), $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$, be a set of five distinct points with integer coordinates in the xy plane. Show that the midpoint of the line joining at least one pair of these points has integer coordinates.

***13.** Let (x_i, y_i, z_i), $i = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9$, be a set of nine distinct points with integer coordinates in xyz space. Show that the midpoint of at least one pair of these points has integer coordinates.

14. How many ordered pairs of integers (a, b) are needed to guarantee that there are two ordered pairs (a_1, b_1) and (a_2, b_2) such that $a_1 \textbf{ mod } 5 = a_2 \textbf{ mod } 5$ and $b_1 \textbf{ mod } 5 = b_2 \textbf{ mod } 5$?

15. **a)** Show that if five integers are selected from the first eight positive integers, there must be a pair of these integers with a sum equal to 9.

b) Is the conclusion in part (a) true if four integers are selected rather than five?

16. **a)** Show that if seven integers are selected from the first 10 positive integers, there must be at least two pairs of these integers with the sum 11.

b) Is the conclusion in part (a) true if six integers are selected rather than seven?

17. How many numbers must be selected from the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ to guarantee that at least one pair of these numbers add up to 7?

18. How many numbers must be selected from the set $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15\}$ to guarantee that at least one pair of these numbers add up to 16?

19. A company stores products in a warehouse. Storage bins in this warehouse are specified by their aisle, location in the aisle, and shelf. There are 50 aisles, 85 horizontal locations in each aisle, and 5 shelves throughout the warehouse. What is the least number of products the company can have so that at least two products must be stored in the same bin?

20. Suppose that there are nine students in a discrete mathematics class at a small college.

a) Show that the class must have at least five male students or at least five female students.

b) Show that the class must have at least three male students or at least seven female students.

21. Suppose that every student in a discrete mathematics class of 25 students is a freshman, a sophomore, or a junior.

a) Show that there are at least nine freshmen, at least nine sophomores, or at least nine juniors in the class.

b) Show that there are either at least three freshmen, at least 19 sophomores, or at least five juniors in the class.

22. Find an increasing subsequence of maximal length and a decreasing subsequence of maximal length in the sequence 22, 5, 7, 2, 23, 10, 15, 21, 3, 17.

23. Construct a sequence of 16 positive integers that has no increasing or decreasing subsequence of five terms.

24. Show that if there are 101 people of different heights standing in a line, it is possible to find 11 people in the order they are standing in the line with heights that are either increasing or decreasing.

***25.** Show that whenever 25 girls and 25 boys are seated around a circular table there is always a person both of whose neighbors are boys.

****26.** Suppose that 21 girls and 21 boys enter a mathematics competition. Furthermore, suppose that each entrant solves at most six questions, and for every boy-girl pair, there is at least one question that they both solved. Show that there is a question that was solved by at least three girls and at least three boys.

***27.** Describe an algorithm in pseudocode for producing the largest increasing or decreasing subsequence of a sequence of distinct integers.

28. Show that in a group of five people (where any two people are either friends or enemies), there are not necessarily three mutual friends or three mutual enemies.

29. Show that in a group of 10 people (where any two people are either friends or enemies), there are either three mutual friends or four mutual enemies, and there are either three mutual enemies or four mutual friends.

30. Use Exercise 29 to show that among any group of 20 people (where any two people are either friends or enemies), there are either four mutual friends or four mutual enemies.

31. Show that if n is an integer with $n \geq 2$, then the Ramsey number $R(2, n)$ equals n. (Recall that Ramsey numbers were discussed after Example 13 in Section 6.2.)

32. Show that if m and n are integers with $m \geq 2$ and $n \geq 2$, then the Ramsey numbers $R(m, n)$ and $R(n, m)$ are equal. (Recall that Ramsey numbers were discussed after Example 13 in Section 6.2.)

33. Show that there are at least six people in California (population: 39 million) with the same three initials who were born on the same day of the year (but not necessarily in the same year). Assume that everyone has three initials.

34. Show that if there are 100,000,000 wage earners in the United States who earn less than 1,000,000 dollars (but at least a penny), then there are two who earned exactly the same amount of money, to the penny, last year.

35. In the 17th century, there were more than 800,000 inhabitants of Paris. At the time, it was believed that no one had more than 200,000 hairs on their head. Assuming these numbers are correct and that everyone has at least one hair on their head (that is, no one is completely bald), use the pigeonhole principle to show, as the French writer Pierre Nicole did, that there had to be two Parisians with the same number of hairs on their heads. Then use the generalized pigeonhole principle to show that there had to be at least five Parisians at that time with the same number of hairs on their heads.

36. Assuming that no one has more than 1,000,000 hairs on their head and that the population of New York City was 8,537,673 in 2016, show there had to be at least nine people in New York City in 2016 with the same number of hairs on their heads.

37. There are 38 different time periods during which classes at a university can be scheduled. If there are 677 different classes, how many different rooms will be needed?

38. A computer network consists of six computers. Each computer is directly connected to at least one of the other computers. Show that there are at least two computers in the network that are directly connected to the same number of other computers.

39. A computer network consists of six computers. Each computer is directly connected to zero or more of the other computers. Show that there are at least two computers in the network that are directly connected to the same number of other computers. [*Hint:* It is impossible to have a computer linked to none of the others and a computer linked to all the others.]

40. Find the least number of cables required to connect eight computers to four printers to guarantee that for every choice of four of the eight computers, these four computers can directly access four different printers. Justify your answer.

41. Find the least number of cables required to connect 100 computers to 20 printers to guarantee that every subset of 20 computers can directly access 20 different printers. (Here, the assumptions about cables and computers are the same as in Example 9.) Justify your answer.

***42.** Prove that at a party where there are at least two people, there are two people who know the same number of other people there.

43. An arm wrestler is the champion for a period of 75 hours. (Here, by an hour, we mean a period starting from an exact hour, such as 1 P.M., until the next hour.) The arm wrestler had at least one match an hour, but no more than 125 total matches. Show that there is a period of consecutive hours during which the arm wrestler had exactly 24 matches.

***44.** Is the statement in Exercise 43 true if 24 is replaced by

a) 2? **b)** 23? **c)** 25? **d)** 30?

45. Show that if f is a function from S to T, where S and T are nonempty finite sets and $m = \lceil |S| / |T| \rceil$, then there are at least m elements of S mapped to the same value of T. That is, show that there are distinct elements $s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_m$ of S such that $f(s_1) = f(s_2) = \cdots = f(s_m)$.

46. There are 51 houses on a street. Each house has an address between 1000 and 1099, inclusive. Show that at least two houses have addresses that are consecutive integers.

***47.** Let x be an irrational number. Show that for some positive integer j not exceeding the positive integer n, the absolute value of the difference between jx and the nearest integer to jx is less than $1/n$.

48. Let $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_t$ be positive integers. Show that if $n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_t - t + 1$ objects are placed into t boxes, then for some i, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, t$, the ith box contains at least n_i objects.

***49.** An alternative proof of Theorem 3 based on the generalized pigeonhole principle is outlined in this exercise. The notation used is the same as that used in the proof in the text.

a) Assume that $i_k \le n$ for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n^2 + 1$. Use the generalized pigeonhole principle to show that there are $n + 1$ terms $a_{k_1}, a_{k_2}, \ldots, a_{k_{n+1}}$ with $i_{k_1} = i_{k_2} = \cdots = i_{k_{n+1}}$, where $1 \le k_1 < k_2 < \cdots < k_{n+1}$.

b) Show that $a_{k_j} > a_{k_{j+1}}$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. [*Hint:* Assume that $a_{k_j} < a_{k_{j+1}}$, and show that this implies that $i_{k_j} > i_{k_{j+1}}$, which is a contradiction.]

c) Use parts (a) and (b) to show that if there is no increasing subsequence of length $n + 1$, then there must be a decreasing subsequence of this length.

6.3 Permutations and Combinations

6.3.1 Introduction

Many counting problems can be solved by finding the number of ways to arrange a specified number of distinct elements of a set of a particular size, where the order of these elements matters. Many other counting problems can be solved by finding the number of ways to select a particular number of elements from a set of a particular size, where the order of the elements selected does not matter. For example, in how many ways can we select three students from a group of five students to stand in line for a picture? How many different committees of three students can be formed from a group of four students? In this section we will develop methods to answer questions such as these.

6.3.2 Permutations

We begin by solving the first question posed in the introduction to this section, as well as related questions.

EXAMPLE 1 In how many ways can we select three students from a group of five students to stand in line for a picture? In how many ways can we arrange all five of these students in a line for a picture?

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. ◀

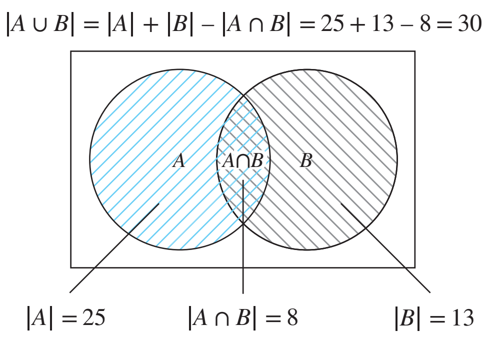


FIGURE 1 **The set of students in a discrete mathematics class.**

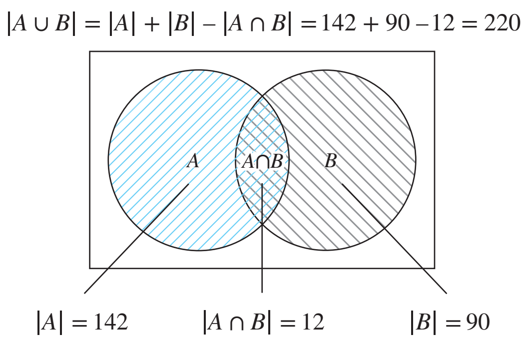


FIGURE 2 **The set of positive integers not exceeding 1000 divisible by either 7 or 11.**

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

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

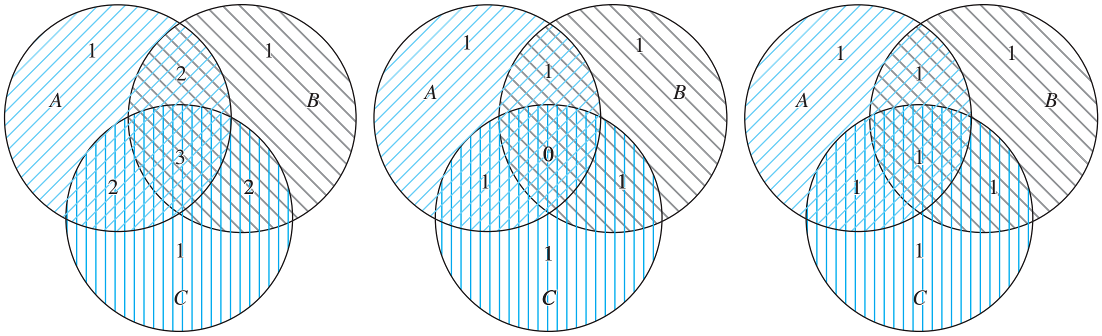
positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by either 7 or 11. This computation is illustrated in Figure 2. ◀

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

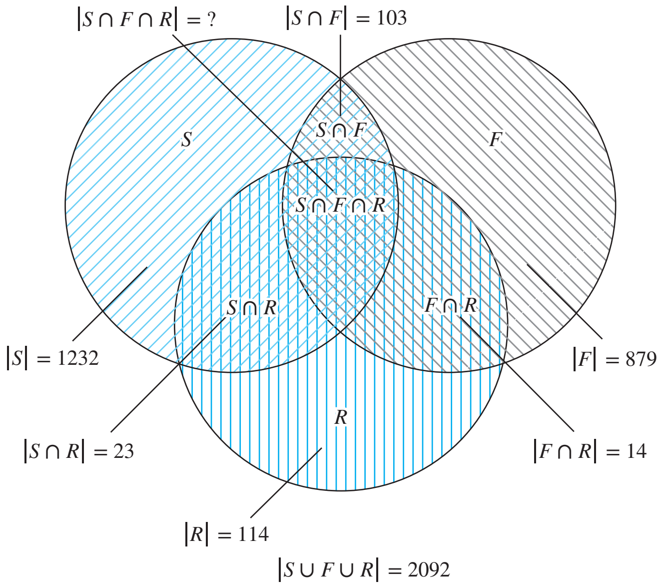


FIGURE 4 The set of students who have taken courses in Spanish, French, and Russian.

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.

***24.** Prove the principle of inclusion–exclusion using mathematical induction.

25. Let E_1, E_2, and E_3 be three events from a sample space S. Find a formula for the probability of $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup E_3$.

26. Find the probability that when a fair coin is flipped five times tails comes up exactly three times, the first and last flips come up tails, or the second and fourth flips come up heads.

27. Find the probability that when four numbers from 1 to 100, inclusive, are picked at random with no repetitions allowed, either all are odd, all are divisible by 3, or all are divisible by 5.

28. Find a formula for the probability of the union of four events in a sample space if no three of them can occur at the same time.

29. Find a formula for the probability of the union of five events in a sample space if no four of them can occur at the same time.

30. Find a formula for the probability of the union of n events in a sample space when no two of these events can occur at the same time.

31. Find a formula for the probability of the union of n events in a sample space.

8.6 Applications of Inclusion–Exclusion

8.6.1 Introduction

Many counting problems can be solved using the principle of inclusion–exclusion. For instance, we can use this principle to find the number of primes less than a positive integer. Many problems can be solved by counting the number of onto functions from one finite set to another. The inclusion–exclusion principle can be used to find the number of such functions. The well-known hatcheck problem can be solved using the principle of inclusion–exclusion. This problem asks for the probability that no person is given the correct hat back by a hatcheck person who gives the hats back randomly.

8.6.2 An Alternative Form of Inclusion–Exclusion

There is an alternative form of the principle of inclusion–exclusion that is useful in counting problems. In particular, this form can be used to solve problems that ask for the number of elements in a set that have none of n properties $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$.

Let A_i be the subset containing the elements that have property P_i. The number of elements with all the properties $P_{i_1}, P_{i_2}, \ldots, P_{i_k}$ will be denoted by $N(P_{i_1}P_{i_2}\ldots P_{i_k})$. Writing these quantities in terms of sets, we have

$$|A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_k}| = N(P_{i_1}P_{i_2}\ldots P_{i_k}).$$

If the number of elements with none of the properties $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$ is denoted by $N(P'_1P'_2\ldots P'_n)$ and the number of elements in the set is denoted by N, it follows that

$$N(P'_1P'_2\ldots P'_n) = N - |A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n|.$$

From the inclusion–exclusion principle, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} N(P'_1P'_2\ldots P'_n) = N &- \sum_{1\le i\le n} N(P_i) + \sum_{1\le i<j\le n} N(P_iP_j) \\ &- \sum_{1\le i<j<k\le n} N(P_iP_jP_k) + \cdots + (-1)^n N(P_1P_2\ldots P_n). \end{aligned}$$

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

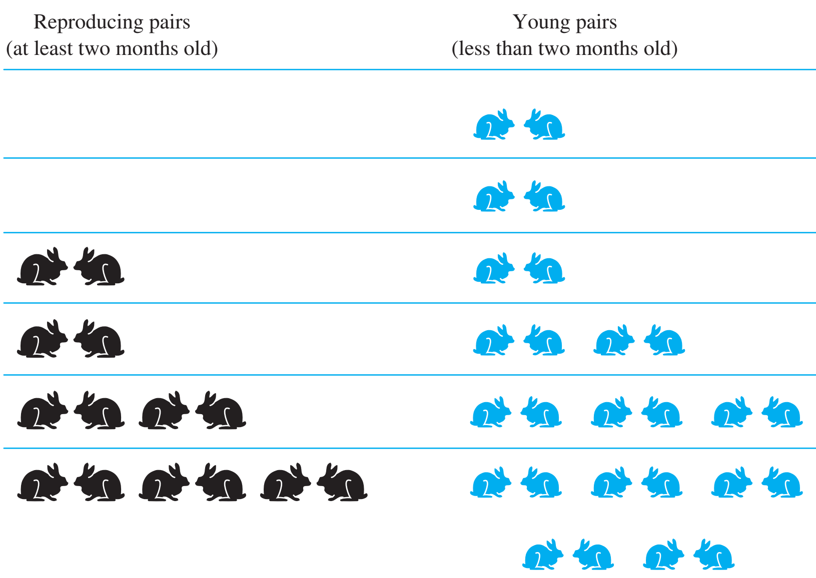
We can use recurrence relations to model a wide variety of problems, such as finding compound interest (see Example 11 in Section 2.4), counting rabbits on an island, determining the number of moves in the Tower of Hanoi puzzle, and counting bit strings with certain properties.

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.

Links



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

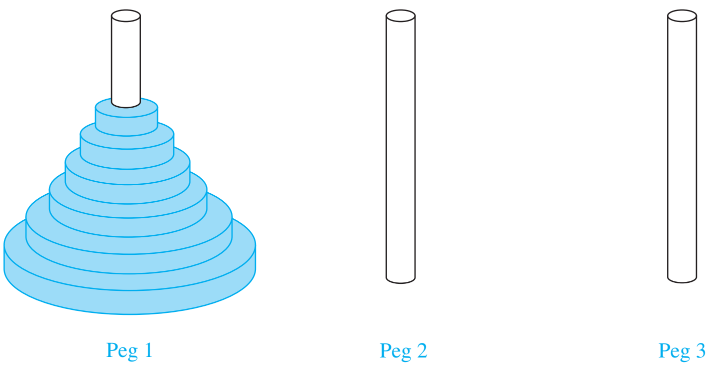


FIGURE 2 **The initial position in the Tower of Hanoi.**

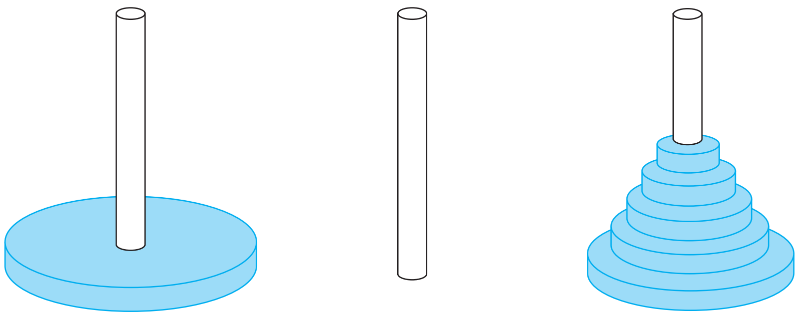


FIGURE 3 **An intermediate position in the Tower of Hanoi.**

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. ◂

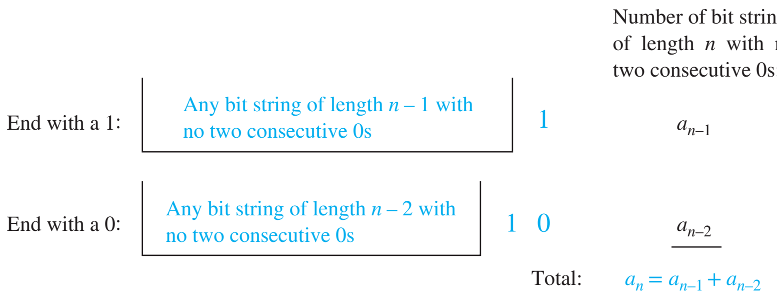


FIGURE 4 **Counting bit strings of length n with no two consecutive 0s.**

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

$$a_3 = a_2 + a_1 = 3 + 2 = 5,$$
$$a_4 = a_3 + a_2 = 5 + 3 = 8,$$
$$a_5 = a_4 + a_3 = 8 + 5 = 13.$$

◀

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:

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

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

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

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

AN EXAMPLE OF DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING The problem we use to illustrate dynamic programming is related to the problem studied in Example 7 in Section 3.1. In that problem our goal was to schedule as many talks as possible in a single lecture hall. These talks have preset start and end times; once a talk starts, it continues until it ends; no two talks can proceed at the same time; and a talk can begin at the same time another one ends. We developed a greedy algorithm that always produces an optimal schedule, as we proved in Example 12 in Section 5.1. Now suppose that our goal is not to schedule the most talks possible, but rather to have the largest possible combined attendance of the scheduled talks.

We formalize this problem by supposing that we have n talks, where talk j begins at time t_j, ends at time e_j, and will be attended by w_j students. We want a schedule that maximizes the total number of student attendees. That is, we wish to schedule a subset of talks to maximize the sum of w_j over all scheduled talks. (Note that when a student attends more than one talk, this student is counted according to the number of talks attended.) We denote by $T(j)$ the maximum number of total attendees for an optimal schedule from the first j talks, so $T(n)$ is the maximal number of total attendees for an optimal schedule for all n talks.

We first sort the talks in order of increasing end time. After doing this, we renumber the talks so that $e_1 \leq e_2 \leq \cdots \leq e_n$. We say that two talks are **compatible** if they can be part of the same schedule, that is, if the times they are scheduled do not overlap (other than the possibility one ends and the other starts at the same time). We define $p(j)$ to be largest integer i, $i < j$, for which $e_i \leq s_j$, if such an integer exists, and $p(j) = 0$ otherwise. That is, talk $p(j)$ is the talk ending latest among talks compatible with talk j that end before talk j ends, if such a talk exists, and $p(j) = 0$ if there are no such talks.

EXAMPLE 6 Consider seven talks with these start times and end times, as illustrated in Figure 5.

Talk 1: start 8 A.M., end 10 A.M.
Talk 2: start 9 A.M., end 11 A.M.
Talk 3: start 10:30 A.M., end 12 noon
Talk 4: start 9:30 A.M., end 1 P.M.
Talk 5: start 8:30 A.M., end 2 P.M.
Talk 6: start 11 A.M., end 2 P.M.
Talk 7: start 1 P.M., end 2 P.M.

Find $p(j)$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, 7$.

Solution: We have $p(1) = 0$ and $p(2) = 0$, because no talks end before either of the first two talks begin. We have $p(3) = 1$ because talk 3 and talk 1 are compatible, but talk 3 and talk 2 are not compatible; $p(4) = 0$ because talk 4 is not compatible with any of talks 1, 2, and 3; $p(5) = 0$

Links

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EUGÈNE CHARLES CATALAN (1814–1894) Eugène Catalan was born in Bruges, then part of France. His father became a successful architect in Paris while Eugène was a boy. Catalan attended a Parisian school for design hoping to follow in his father's footsteps. At 15, he won the job of teaching geometry to his design school classmates. After graduating, Catalan attended a school for the fine arts, but because of his mathematical aptitude his instructors recommended that he enter the École Polytechnique. He became a student there, but after his first year, he was expelled because of his politics. However, he was readmitted, and in 1835, he graduated and won a position at the Collège de Châlons sur Marne.

In 1838, Catalan returned to Paris where he founded a preparatory school with two other mathematicians, Sturm and Liouville. After teaching there for a short time, he was appointed to a position at the École Polytechnique. He received his doctorate from the École Polytechnique in 1841, but his political activity in favor of the French Republic hurt his career prospects. In 1846 Catalan held a position at the Collège de Charlemagne; he was appointed to the Lycée Saint Louis in 1849. However, when Catalan would not take a required oath of allegiance to the new Emperor Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte, he lost his job. For 13 years he held no permanent position. Finally, in 1865 he was appointed to a chair of mathematics at the University of Liège, Belgium, a position he held until his 1884 retirement.

Catalan made many contributions to number theory and to the related subject of continued fractions. He defined what are now known as the Catalan numbers when he solved the problem of dissecting a polygon into triangles using non-intersecting diagonals. Catalan is also well known for formulating what was known as the *Catalan conjecture*. This asserted that 8 and 9 are the only consecutive powers of integers, a conjecture not solved until 2003. Catalan wrote many textbooks, including several that became quite popular and appeared in as many as 12 editions. Perhaps this textbook will have a 12th edition someday!

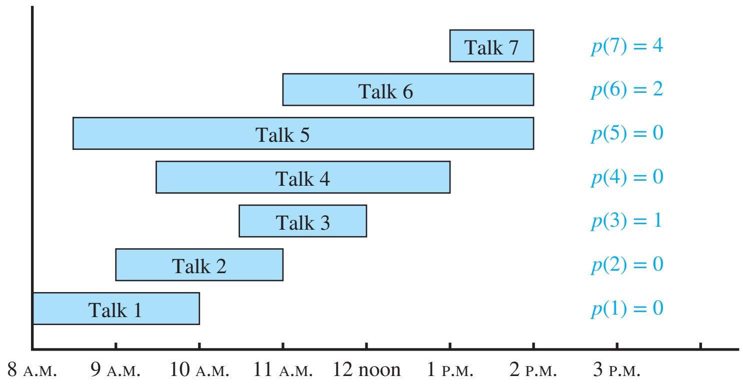

FIGURE 5 A schedule of lectures with the values of $p(n)$ shown.

because talk 5 is not compatible with any of talks 1, 2, 3, and 4; and $p(6) = 2$ because talk 6 and talk 2 are compatible, but talk 6 is not compatible with any of talks 3, 4, and 5. Finally, $p(7) = 4$, because talk 7 and talk 4 are compatible, but talk 7 is not compatible with either of talks 5 or 6. ◀

To develop a dynamic programming algorithm for this problem, we first develop a key recurrence relation. To do this, first note that if $j \leq n$, there are two possibilities for an optimal schedule of the first j talks (recall that we are assuming that the n talks are ordered by increasing end time): *(i)* talk j belongs to the optimal schedule or *(ii)* it does not.

Case (i): We know that talks $p(j) + 1, \ldots, j - 1$ do not belong to this schedule, for none of these other talks are compatible with talk j. Furthermore, the other talks in this optimal schedule must comprise an optimal schedule for talks $1, 2, \ldots, p(j)$. For if there were a better schedule for talks

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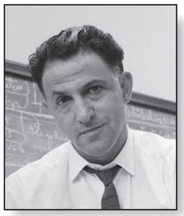


©*Alfred Eisenstaedt/The LIFE Picture Collection/Getty Images*

RICHARD BELLMAN (1920–1984) Richard Bellman, born in Brooklyn, where his father was a grocer, spent many hours in the museums and libraries of New York as a child. After graduating high school, he studied mathematics at Brooklyn College and graduated in 1941. He began postgraduate work at Johns Hopkins University, but because of the war, left to teach electronics at the University of Wisconsin. He was able to continue his mathematics studies at Wisconsin, and in 1943 he received his masters degree there. Later, Bellman entered Princeton University, teaching in a special U.S. Army program. In late 1944, he was drafted into the army. He was assigned to the Manhattan Project at Los Alamos where he worked in theoretical physics. After the war, he returned to Princeton and received his Ph.D. in 1946.

After briefly teaching at Princeton, he moved to Stanford University, where he attained tenure. At Stanford he pursued his fascination with number theory. However, Bellman decided to focus on mathematical questions arising from real-world problems. In 1952, he joined the RAND Corporation, working on multistage decision processes, operations research problems, and applications to the social sciences and medicine. He worked on many military projects while at RAND. In 1965 he left RAND to become professor of mathematics, electrical and biomedical engineering and medicine at the University of Southern California.

In the 1950s Bellman pioneered the use of dynamic programming, a technique invented earlier, in a wide range of settings. He is also known for his work on stochastic control processes, in which he introduced what is now called the Bellman equation. He coined the term *curse of dimensionality* to describe problems caused by the exponential increase in volume associated with adding extra dimensions to a space. He wrote an amazing number of books and research papers with many coauthors, including many on industrial production and economic systems. His work led to the application of computing techniques in a wide variety of areas ranging from the design of guidance systems for space vehicles, to network optimization, and even to pest control.

Tragically, in 1973 Bellman was diagnosed with a brain tumor. Although it was removed successfully, complications left him severely disabled. Fortunately, he managed to continue his research and writing during his remaining ten years of life. Bellman received many prizes and awards, including the first Norbert Wiener Prize in Applied Mathematics and the IEEE Gold Medal of Honor. He was elected to the National Academy of Sciences. He was held in high regard for his achievements, courage, and admirable qualities. Bellman was the father of two children.

$1, 2, \ldots, p(j)$, by adding talk j, we will have a schedule better than the overall optimal schedule. Consequently, in case *(i)*, we have $T(j) = w_j + T(p(j))$.

Case (ii): When talk j does not belong to an optimal schedule, it follows that an optimal schedule from talks $1, 2, \ldots, j$ is the same as an optimal schedule from talks $1, 2, \ldots, j-1$. Consequently, in case *(ii)*, we have $T(j) = T(j-1)$. Combining cases *(i)* and *(ii)* leads us to the recurrence relation

$$T(j) = \max(w_j + T(p(j)), T(j-1)).$$

Now that we have developed this recurrence relation, we can construct an efficient algorithm, Algorithm 1, for computing the maximum total number of attendees. We ensure that the algorithm is efficient by storing the value of each $T(j)$ after we compute it. This allows us to compute $T(j)$ only once. If we did not do this, the algorithm would have exponential worst-case complexity. The process of storing the values as each is computed is known as **memoization** and is an important technique for making recursive algorithms efficient.

ALGORITHM 1 Dynamic Programming Algorithm for Scheduling Talks.

procedure *Maximum Attendees* ($s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n$: start times of talks;
  $e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n$: end times of talks; $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n$: number of attendees to talks)
  sort talks by end time and relabel so that $e_1 \le e_2 \le \cdots \le e_n$
for $j := 1$ **to** n
    if no job i with $i < j$ is compatible with job j
        $p(j) = 0$
    else $p(j) := \max\{i — i < j$ and job i is compatible with job $j\}$
    $T(0) := 0$
for $j := 1$ **to** n
    $T(j) := \max(w_j + T(p(j)), T(j-1))$
return $T(n)\{T(n)$ is the maximum number of attendees$\}$

In Algorithm 1 we determine the maximum number of attendees that can be achieved by a schedule of talks, but we do not find a schedule that achieves this maximum. To find talks we need to schedule, we use the fact that talk j belongs to an optimal solution for the first j talks if and only if $w_j + T(p(j)) \ge T(j-1)$. We leave it as Exercise 53 to construct an algorithm based on this observation that determines which talks should be scheduled to achieve the maximum total number of attendees.

Algorithm 1 is a good example of dynamic programming as the maximum total attendance is found using the optimal solutions of the overlapping subproblems, each of which determines the maximum total attendance of the first j talks for some j with $1 \le j \le n-1$. See Exercises 56 and 57 and Supplementary Exercises 14 and 17 for other examples of dynamic programming.

Exercises

1. Use mathematical induction to verify the formula derived in Example 2 for the number of moves required to complete the Tower of Hanoi puzzle.

2. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of permutations of a set with n elements.

b) Use this recurrence relation to find the number of permutations of a set with n elements using iteration.

3. A vending machine dispensing books of stamps accepts only one-dollar coins, \$1 bills, and \$5 bills.

a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ways to deposit n dollars in the vending machine, where the order in which the coins and bills are deposited matters.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ways are there to deposit \$10 for a book of stamps?

4. A country uses as currency coins with values of 1 peso, 2 pesos, 5 pesos, and 10 pesos and bills with values of 5 pesos, 10 pesos, 20 pesos, 50 pesos, and 100 pesos. Find a recurrence relation for the number of ways to pay a bill of n pesos if the order in which the coins and bills are paid matters.

5. How many ways are there to pay a bill of 17 pesos using the currency described in Exercise 4, where the order in which coins and bills are paid matters?

***6. a)** Find a recurrence relation for the number of strictly increasing sequences of positive integers that have 1 as their first term and n as their last term, where n is a positive integer. That is, sequences $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k$, where $a_1 = 1$, $a_k = n$, and $a_j < a_{j+1}$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, k-1$.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many sequences of the type described in (a) are there when n is an integer with $n \geq 2$?

7. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of bit strings of length n that contain a pair of consecutive 0s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many bit strings of length seven contain two consecutive 0s?

8. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of bit strings of length n that contain three consecutive 0s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many bit strings of length seven contain three consecutive 0s?

9. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of bit strings of length n that do not contain three consecutive 0s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many bit strings of length seven do not contain three consecutive 0s?

***10. a)** Find a recurrence relation for the number of bit strings of length n that contain the string 01.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many bit strings of length seven contain the string 01?

11. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ways to climb n stairs if the person climbing the stairs can take one stair or two stairs at a time.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) In how many ways can this person climb a flight of eight stairs?

12. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ways to climb n stairs if the person climbing the stairs can take one, two, or three stairs at a time.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) In how many ways can this person climb a flight of eight stairs?

A string that contains only 0s, 1s, and 2s is called a **ternary string**.

13. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ternary strings of length n that do not contain two consecutive 0s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ternary strings of length six do not contain two consecutive 0s?

14. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ternary strings of length n that contain two consecutive 0s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ternary strings of length six contain two consecutive 0s?

***15. a)** Find a recurrence relation for the number of ternary strings of length n that do not contain two consecutive 0s or two consecutive 1s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ternary strings of length six do not contain two consecutive 0s or two consecutive 1s?

***16. a)** Find a recurrence relation for the number of ternary strings of length n that contain either two consecutive 0s or two consecutive 1s.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ternary strings of length six contain two consecutive 0s or two consecutive 1s?

***17. a)** Find a recurrence relation for the number of ternary strings of length n that do not contain consecutive symbols that are the same.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ternary strings of length six do not contain consecutive symbols that are the same?

****18. a)** Find a recurrence relation for the number of ternary strings of length n that contain two consecutive symbols that are the same.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many ternary strings of length six contain consecutive symbols that are the same?

19. Messages are transmitted over a communications channel using two signals. The transmittal of one signal requires 1 microsecond, and the transmittal of the other signal requires 2 microseconds.

a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of different messages consisting of sequences of these two signals, where each signal in the message is immediately followed by the next signal, that can be sent in n microseconds.

b) What are the initial conditions?

c) How many different messages can be sent in 10 microseconds using these two signals?

20. A bus driver pays all tolls, using only nickels and dimes, by throwing one coin at a time into the mechanical toll collector.

a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of different ways the bus driver can pay a toll of n cents (where the order in which the coins are used matters).

b) In how many different ways can the driver pay a toll of 45 cents?

21. a) Find the recurrence relation satisfied by R_n, where R_n is the number of regions that a plane is divided into by n lines, if no two of the lines are parallel and no three of the lines go through the same point.

b) Find R_n using iteration.

*22. a) Find the recurrence relation satisfied by R_n, where R_n is the number of regions into which the surface of a sphere is divided by n great circles (which are the intersections of the sphere and planes passing through the center of the sphere), if no three of the great circles go through the same point.

b) Find R_n using iteration.

*23. a) Find the recurrence relation satisfied by S_n, where S_n is the number of regions into which three-dimensional space is divided by n planes if every three of the planes meet in one point, but no four of the planes go through the same point.

b) Find S_n using iteration.

24. Find a recurrence relation for the number of bit sequences of length n with an even number of 0s.

25. How many bit sequences of length seven contain an even number of 0s?

26. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ways to completely cover a $2 \times n$ checkerboard with 1×2 dominoes. [*Hint:* Consider separately the coverings where the position in the top right corner of the checkerboard is covered by a domino positioned horizontally and where it is covered by a domino positioned vertically.]

b) What are the initial conditions for the recurrence relation in part (a)?

c) How many ways are there to completely cover a 2×17 checkerboard with 1×2 dominoes?

27. a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of ways to lay out a walkway with slate tiles if the tiles are red, green, or gray, so that no two red tiles are adjacent and tiles of the same color are considered indistinguishable.

b) What are the initial conditions for the recurrence relation in part (a)?

c) How many ways are there to lay out a path of seven tiles as described in part (a)?

28. Show that the Fibonacci numbers satisfy the recurrence relation $f_n = 5f_{n-4} + 3f_{n-5}$ for $n = 5, 6, 7, \ldots,$ together with the initial conditions $f_0 = 0, f_1 = 1, f_2 = 1, f_3 = 2,$ and $f_4 = 3$. Use this recurrence relation to show that f_{5n} is divisible by 5, for $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$.

*29. Let $S(m, n)$ denote the number of onto functions from a set with m elements to a set with n elements. Show that $S(m, n)$ satisfies the recurrence relation

$$S(m, n) = n^m - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} C(n, k)S(m, k)$$

whenever $m \geq n$ and $n > 1$, with the initial condition $S(m, 1) = 1$.

30. a) Write out all the ways the product $x_0 \cdot x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3 \cdot x_4$ can be parenthesized to determine the order of multiplication.

b) Use the recurrence relation developed in Example 5 to calculate C_4, the number of ways to parenthesize the product of five numbers so as to determine the order of multiplication. Verify that you listed the correct number of ways in part (a).

c) Check your result in part (b) by finding C_4, using the closed formula for C_n mentioned in the solution of Example 5.

31. a) Use the recurrence relation developed in Example 5 to determine C_5, the number of ways to parenthesize the product of six numbers so as to determine the order of multiplication.

b) Check your result with the closed formula for C_5 mentioned in the solution of Example 5.

*32. In the Tower of Hanoi puzzle, suppose our goal is to transfer all n disks from peg 1 to peg 3, but we cannot move a disk directly between pegs 1 and 3. Each move of a disk must be a move involving peg 2. As usual, we cannot place a disk on top of a smaller disk.

a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of moves required to solve the puzzle for n disks with this added restriction.

b) Solve this recurrence relation to find a formula for the number of moves required to solve the puzzle for n disks.

c) How many different arrangements are there of the n disks on three pegs so that no disk is on top of a smaller disk?

d) Show that every allowable arrangement of the n disks occurs in the solution of this variation of the puzzle.

Exercises 33–37 deal with a variation of the **Josephus problem** described by Graham, Knuth, and Patashnik in [GrKnPa94]. This problem is based on an account by the historian Flavius Josephus, who was part of a band of 41 Jewish rebels trapped in a cave by the Romans during the Jewish-Roman war of the first century. The rebels preferred suicide to capture; they decided to form a circle and to repeatedly count off around the circle, killing every third rebel left alive. However, Josephus and another rebel did not want to be killed this way; they determined the positions where they should stand to be the last two rebels remaining alive. The variation we consider begins with n people, numbered 1 to n, standing around a circle. In each stage, every second person still left alive is eliminated until only one survives. We denote the number of the survivor by $J(n)$.

Links

33. Determine the value of $J(n)$ for each integer n with $1 \leq n \leq 16$.

34. Use the values you found in Exercise 33 to conjecture a formula for $J(n)$. [*Hint:* Write $n = 2^m + k$, where m is a nonnegative integer and k is a nonnegative integer less than 2^m.]

35. Show that $J(n)$ satisfies the recurrence relation $J(2n) = 2J(n) - 1$ and $J(2n + 1) = 2J(n) + 1$, for $n \geq 1$, and $J(1) = 1$.

36. Use mathematical induction to prove the formula you conjectured in Exercise 34, making use of the recurrence relation from Exercise 35.

37. Determine $J(100)$, $J(1000)$, and $J(10{,}000)$ from your formula for $J(n)$.

Exercises 38–45 involve the Reve's puzzle, the variation of the Tower of Hanoi puzzle with four pegs and n disks. Before presenting these exercises, we describe the Frame–Stewart algorithm for moving the disks from peg 1 to peg 4 so that no disk is ever on top of a smaller one. This algorithm, given the number of disks n as input, depends on a choice of an integer k with $1 \leq k \leq n$. When there is only one disk, move it from peg 1 to peg 4 and stop. For $n > 1$, the algorithm proceeds recursively, using these three steps. Recursively move the stack of the $n - k$ smallest disks from peg 1 to peg 2, using all four pegs. Next move the stack of the k largest disks from peg 1 to peg 4, using the three-peg algorithm from the Tower of Hanoi puzzle without using the peg holding the $n-k$ smallest disks. Finally, recursively move the smallest $n-k$ disks to peg 4, using all four pegs. Frame and Stewart showed that to produce the fewest moves using their algorithm, k should be chosen to be the smallest integer such that n does not exceed $t_k = k(k+1)/2$, the kth triangular number, that is, $t_{k-1} < n \leq t_k$. The long-standing conjecture, known as **Frame's conjecture**, that this algorithm uses the fewest number of moves required to solve the puzzle, was proved by Thierry Bousch in 2014.

38. Show that the Reve's puzzle with three disks can be solved using five, and no fewer, moves.

39. Show that the Reve's puzzle with four disks can be solved using nine, and no fewer, moves.

40. Describe the moves made by the Frame–Stewart algorithm, with k chosen so that the fewest moves are required, for

a) 5 disks. **b)** 6 disks. **c)** 7 disks. **d)** 8 disks.

***41.** Show that if $R(n)$ is the number of moves used by the Frame–Stewart algorithm to solve the Reve's puzzle with n disks, where k is chosen to be the smallest integer with $n \leq k(k+1)/2$, then $R(n)$ satisfies the recurrence relation $R(n) = 2R(n-k) + 2^k - 1$, with $R(0) = 0$ and $R(1) = 1$.

***42.** Show that if k is as chosen in Exercise 41, then $R(n) - R(n-1) = 2^{k-1}$.

***43.** Show that if k is as chosen in Exercise 41, then $R(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} i2^{i-1} - (t_k - n)2^{k-1}$.

***44.** Use Exercise 43 to give an upper bound on the number of moves required to solve the Reve's puzzle for all integers n with $1 \leq n \leq 25$.

***45.** Show that $R(n)$ is $O(\sqrt{n}2^{\sqrt{2n}})$.

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence of real numbers. The **backward differences** of this sequence are defined recursively as shown next. The **first difference** ∇a_n is

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

The **$(k+1)$st difference** $\nabla^{k+1} a_n$ is obtained from $\nabla^k a_n$ by

$$\nabla^{k+1} a_n = \nabla^k a_n - \nabla^k a_{n-1}.$$

46. Find ∇a_n for the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where

a) $a_n = 4$. **b)** $a_n = 2n$.

c) $a_n = n^2$. **d)** $a_n = 2^n$.

47. Find $\nabla^2 a_n$ for the sequences in Exercise 46.

48. Show that $a_{n-1} = a_n - \nabla a_n$.

49. Show that $a_{n-2} = a_n - 2\nabla a_n + \nabla^2 a_n$.

***50.** Prove that a_{n-k} can be expressed in terms of a_n, ∇a_n, $\nabla^2 a_n, \ldots, \nabla^k a_n$.

51. Express the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$ in terms of a_n, ∇a_n, and $\nabla^2 a_n$.

52. Show that any recurrence relation for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ can be written in terms of a_n, ∇a_n, $\nabla^2 a_n, \ldots$. The resulting equation involving the sequences and its differences is called a **difference equation**.

***53.** Construct the algorithm described in the text after Algorithm 1 for determining which talks should be scheduled to maximize the total number of attendees and not just the maximum total number of attendees determined by Algorithm 1.

54. Use Algorithm 1 to determine the maximum number of total attendees in the talks in Example 6 if w_i, the number of attendees of talk i, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, 7$, is

a) 20, 10, 50, 30, 15, 25, 40.

b) 100, 5, 10, 20, 25, 40, 30.

c) 2, 3, 8, 5, 4, 7, 10.

d) 10, 8, 7, 25, 20, 30, 5.

55. For each part of Exercise 54, use your algorithm from Exercise 53 to find the optimal schedule for talks so that the total number of attendees is maximized.

56. In this exercise we will develop a dynamic programming algorithm for finding the maximum sum of consecutive terms of a sequence of real numbers. That is, given a sequence of real numbers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$, the algorithm computes the maximum sum $\sum_{i=j}^{k} a_i$ where $1 \leq j \leq k \leq n$.

a) Show that if all terms of the sequence are nonnegative, this problem is solved by taking the sum of all terms. Then, give an example where the maximum sum of consecutive terms is not the sum of all terms.

b) Let $M(k)$ be the maximum of the sums of consecutive terms of the sequence ending at a_k. That is, $M(k) = \max_{1 \leq j \leq k} \sum_{i=j}^{k} a_i$. Explain why the recurrence relation $M(k) = \max(M(k-1) + a_k, a_k)$ holds for $k = 2, \ldots, n$.

c) Use part (b) to develop a dynamic programming algorithm for solving this problem.

d) Show each step your algorithm from part (c) uses to find the maximum sum of consecutive terms of the sequence 2, −3, 4, 1, −2, 3.

e) Show that the worst-case complexity in terms of the number of additions and comparisons of your algorithm from part (c) is linear.

***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 $c_k \ne 0$.

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 $a_0 = 4$.

26. What is the general form of the particular solution guaranteed to exist by Theorem 6 of the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 12a_{n-2} + 8a_{n-3} + F(n)$ if

a) $F(n) = n^2$? **b)** $F(n) = 2^n$?
c) $F(n) = n2^n$? **d)** $F(n) = (-2)^n$?
e) $F(n) = n^2 2^n$? **f)** $F(n) = n^3(-2)^n$?
g) $F(n) = 3$?

27. What is the general form of the particular solution guaranteed to exist by Theorem 6 of the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = 8a_{n-2} - 16a_{n-4} + F(n)$ if

a) $F(n) = n^3$? **b)** $F(n) = (-2)^n$?
c) $F(n) = n2^n$? **d)** $F(n) = n^2 4^n$?
e) $F(n) = (n^2 - 2)(-2)^n$? **f)** $F(n) = n^4 2^n$?
g) $F(n) = 2$?

28. a) Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 2n^2$.
b) Find the solution of the recurrence relation in part (a) with initial condition $a_1 = 4$.

29. a) Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 3^n$.
b) Find the solution of the recurrence relation in part (a) with initial condition $a_1 = 5$.

30. a) Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = -5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2} + 42 \cdot 4^n$.
b) Find the solution of this recurrence relation with $a_1 = 56$ and $a_2 = 278$.

31. Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2} + 2^n + 3n$. [*Hint:* Look for a particular solution of the form $qn2^n + p_1 n + p_2$, where q, p_1, and p_2 are constants.]

32. Find the solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 3 \cdot 2^n$.

33. Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2} + (n+1)2^n$.

34. Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 7a_{n-1} - 16a_{n-2} + 12a_{n-3} + n4^n$ with $a_0 = -2$, $a_1 = 0$, and $a_2 = 5$.

35. Find the solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = 4a_{n-1} - 3a_{n-2} + 2^n + n + 3$ with $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = 4$.

36. Let a_n be the sum of the first n perfect squares, that is, $a_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2$. Show that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + n^2$ and the initial condition $a_1 = 1$. Use Theorem 6 to determine a formula for a_n by solving this recurrence relation.

37. Let a_n be the sum of the first n triangular numbers, that is, $a_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} t_k$, where $t_k = k(k+1)/2$. Show that $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + n(n+1)/2$ and the initial condition $a_1 = 1$. Use Theorem 6 to determine a formula for a_n by solving this recurrence relation.

38. a) Find the characteristic roots of the linear homogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} - 2a_{n-2}$. [*Note:* These are complex numbers.]
b) Find the solution of the recurrence relation in part (a) with $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = 2$.

***39. a)** Find the characteristic roots of the linear homogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-4}$. [*Note:* These include complex numbers.]
b) Find the solution of the recurrence relation in part (a) with $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 0$, $a_2 = -1$, and $a_3 = 1$.

***40.** Solve the simultaneous recurrence relations

$$a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2b_{n-1}$$
$$b_n = a_{n-1} + 2b_{n-1}$$

with $a_0 = 1$ and $b_0 = 2$.

***41. a)** Use the formula found in Example 4 for f_n, the nth Fibonacci number, to show that f_n is the integer closest to

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

b) Determine for which n f_n is greater than

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

and for which n f_n is less than

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

42. Show that if $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$, $a_0 = s$ and $a_1 = t$, where s and t are constants, then $a_n = sf_{n-1} + tf_n$ for all positive integers n.

43. Express the solution of the linear nonhomogenous recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + 1$ for $n \geq 2$ where $a_0 = 0$ and $a_1 = 1$ in terms of the Fibonacci numbers. [*Hint:* Let $b_n = a_n + 1$ and apply Exercise 42 to the sequence b_n.]

***44.** (*Linear algebra required*) Let $\mathbf{A}_n$ be the $n \times n$ matrix with 2s on its main diagonal, 1s in all positions next to a diagonal element, and 0s everywhere else. Find a recurrence relation for d_n, the determinant of $\mathbf{A}_n$. Solve this recurrence relation to find a formula for d_n.

45. Suppose that each pair of a genetically engineered species of rabbits left on an island produces two new pairs of rabbits at the age of 1 month and six new pairs of rabbits at the age of 2 months and every month afterward. None of the rabbits ever die or leave the island.

a) Find a recurrence relation for the number of pairs of rabbits on the island n months after one newborn pair is left on the island.
b) By solving the recurrence relation in (a) determine the number of pairs of rabbits on the island n months after one pair is left on the island.

46. Suppose that there are two goats on an island initially. The number of goats on the island doubles every year by natural reproduction, and some goats are either added or removed each year.

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. ◀

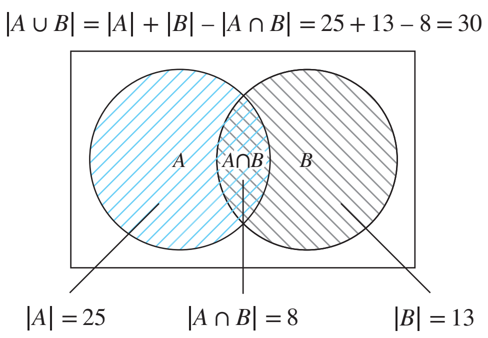


FIGURE 1 The set of students in a discrete mathematics class.

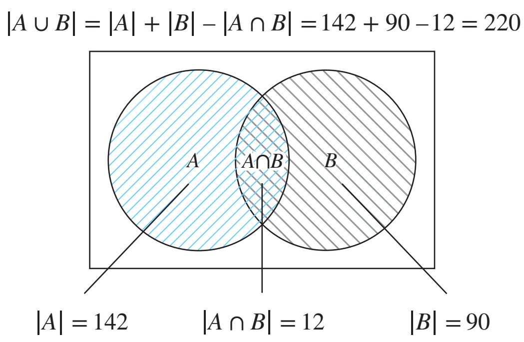


FIGURE 2 The set of positive integers not exceeding 1000 divisible by either 7 or 11.

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

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

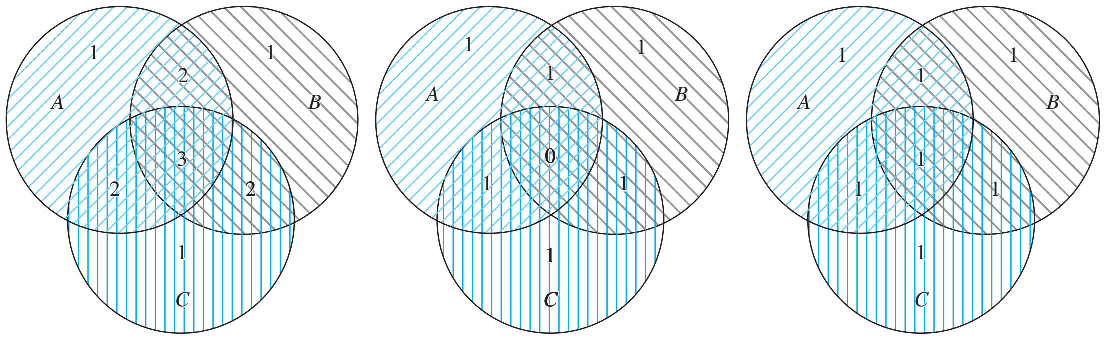
positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by either 7 or 11. This computation is illustrated in Figure 2. ◀

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

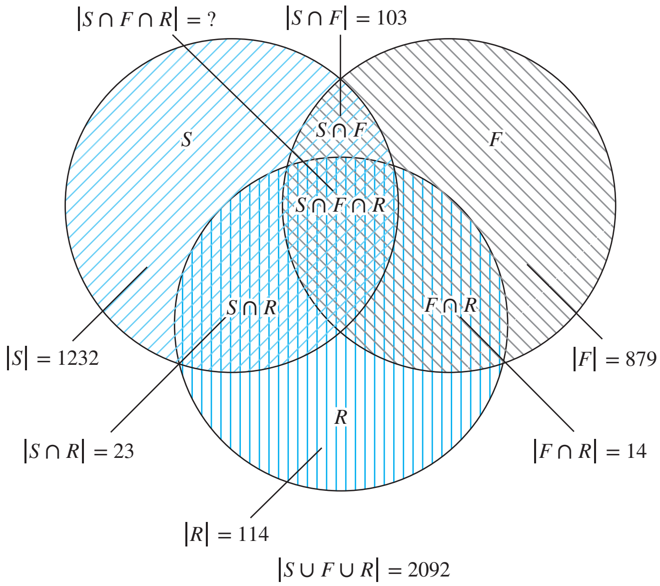


FIGURE 4 The set of students who have taken courses in Spanish, French, and Russian.

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.

***24.** Prove the principle of inclusion–exclusion using mathematical induction.

25. Let E_1, E_2, and E_3 be three events from a sample space S. Find a formula for the probability of $E_1 \cup E_2 \cup E_3$.

26. Find the probability that when a fair coin is flipped five times tails comes up exactly three times, the first and last flips come up tails, or the second and fourth flips come up heads.

27. Find the probability that when four numbers from 1 to 100, inclusive, are picked at random with no repetitions allowed, either all are odd, all are divisible by 3, or all are divisible by 5.

28. Find a formula for the probability of the union of four events in a sample space if no three of them can occur at the same time.

29. Find a formula for the probability of the union of five events in a sample space if no four of them can occur at the same time.

30. Find a formula for the probability of the union of n events in a sample space when no two of these events can occur at the same time.

31. Find a formula for the probability of the union of n events in a sample space.

8.6 Applications of Inclusion–Exclusion

8.6.1 Introduction

Many counting problems can be solved using the principle of inclusion–exclusion. For instance, we can use this principle to find the number of primes less than a positive integer. Many problems can be solved by counting the number of onto functions from one finite set to another. The inclusion–exclusion principle can be used to find the number of such functions. The well-known hatcheck problem can be solved using the principle of inclusion–exclusion. This problem asks for the probability that no person is given the correct hat back by a hatcheck person who gives the hats back randomly.

8.6.2 An Alternative Form of Inclusion–Exclusion

There is an alternative form of the principle of inclusion–exclusion that is useful in counting problems. In particular, this form can be used to solve problems that ask for the number of elements in a set that have none of n properties $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$.

Let A_i be the subset containing the elements that have property P_i. The number of elements with all the properties $P_{i_1}, P_{i_2}, \ldots, P_{i_k}$ will be denoted by $N(P_{i_1}P_{i_2}\ldots P_{i_k})$. Writing these quantities in terms of sets, we have

$$|A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2} \cap \cdots \cap A_{i_k}| = N(P_{i_1}P_{i_2}\ldots P_{i_k}).$$

If the number of elements with none of the properties $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_n$ is denoted by $N(P_1'P_2'\ldots P_n')$ and the number of elements in the set is denoted by N, it follows that

$$N(P_1'P_2'\ldots P_n') = N - |A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n|.$$

From the inclusion–exclusion principle, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} N(P_1'P_2'\ldots P_n') = N &- \sum_{1\le i\le n} N(P_i) + \sum_{1\le i<j\le n} N(P_iP_j) \\ &- \sum_{1\le i<j<k\le n} N(P_iP_jP_k) + \cdots + (-1)^n N(P_1P_2\ldots P_n). \end{aligned}$$