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A Note on the System of Linear Recurrence Equations

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Abstract. We will find a solution to a system of 2^d linear recurrence equations. Each equation is of the form $x_{2k}(n + 1) = x_k(n)$ or $x_{2k+1}(n + 1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)$. This kind of system is connected with counting restricted permutations.

1. Introduction

The study of restricted permutations has a long history. Probably the most well known example is derangement problem or "le Problème des Rencontres" (see [4]). "Today, most of the restricted permutations considered in the literature deal with pattern avoidance. For an exhaustive survey of such studies, see [5]. For a related topic of pattern avoidance in compositions and words see [3] and in set partitions see [7]. Study of permutation patterns has applications in counting different combinatorial structures, computer science, statistical mechanics and computational biology [5, Ch.2,3].

Another type of restricted permutations is a generalization of the derangement problem. Detailed historical introduction to restricted permutations of this kind can be found in [1, 2]. Let *p* be a *permutation* of the set $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$. So, p(i) refers to the value taken by the function *p* when evaluated at a point *i*. Mendelsohn, Lagrange, Lehmer, Tomescu and Stanley studied particular types of strongly restricted permutations satisfying the condition $|p(i) - i| \le d$, where *d* is 1, 2, or 3 (more information on their work can be found in [1]). In [1] we pursue more general, asymmetric cases and we end up with asymmetric cases with more forbidden positions.

In [1] we developed a technique for counting restricted permutations of \mathbb{N}_n satisfying the conditions $-k \le p(i) - i \le r$ (for arbitrary natural numbers k and r) and $p(i) - i \notin I$ (for some set I). For a given k, r and I the technique produces a system of linear recurrence equations. When trying to determine the reduced system in a particular case, we get the following system of linear recurrence equations:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_{2k}(n+1) &=& x_k(n) \\ x_{2k+1}(n+1) &=& x_k(n) &+& x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n) \end{array} \tag{*}$$

for $k = 0, 1, \dots, 2^{d-1} - 1$.

Purpose of this note is to solve the system (*) (for other type of systems, we refer the reader to [6]). Solution of a special case of (*) is given in Lemma 2.1, which is used to solve the general case of (*) in Theorem 2.2.

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Now we will introduce some notations.

The number $n < 2^d$ in binary form is represented by $n_2 = (b_{d-1}b_{d-2}...b_1b_0)_2$, where $b_i \in \{0,1\}$ and $-\sum_{i=1}^{d-1} b_{i-1} \cdot 2^s$

 $n=\sum_{s=0}^{d-1}b_s\cdot 2^s.$

Binary operation \oplus is given by $x \oplus y = x + y \pmod{d}$.

For each position *s*, $0 \le s \le d - 1$, let us introduce the function

$$f_s(a, b, r) = \begin{cases} 1, & a_s = b_{s \oplus r} \\ 0, & a_s = 1, b_{s \oplus r} = 0 \\ t, & a_s = 0, b_{s \oplus r} = 1, s < d - r \\ t + 1, & a_s = 0, b_{s \oplus r} = 1, s \ge d - r. \end{cases}$$

2. Main Results

Lemma 2.1. Suppose we have a system of 2^d linear recurrence equations which are of the form $x_{2k}(n + 1) = x_k(n)$ and $x_{2k+1}(n + 1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)$ for $k = 0, 1, ..., 2^{d-1} - 1$, where $0 \le a, b \le 2^d - 1$ and for some $a, x_a(0) = 1$, while for all $b \ne a, x_b(0) = 0$.

Then for $n = d \cdot t + r$, $0 \le r \le d - 1$, *the following equality is true:*

$$x_b(n) = \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a,b,r).$$

Proof. Let us prove that this solution satisfies the initial conditions and the equations of the first type and the second type of a given system.

1° the initial conditions

For $n = 0 = d \cdot 0 + 0$ we have that r = 0, so $s \oplus r = s \oplus 0 = s$.

If b = a for each position applies $a_s = b_s$, therefore $f_s(a, a, 0) = 1$, which implies that

$$x_a(0) = \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} 1 = 1.$$

If $b \neq a$, then there is a position *s* from where the binary forms a_2 and b_2 differ. If $a_s = 1$ and $b_s = 0$, it immediately follows that $f_s(a, b, 0) = 0$. If $a_s = 0$ and $b_s = 1$, as is true for s < d = d - r, we have that $f_s(a, b, 0) = t = 0$. When $b \neq a$ in both cases we get that $f_s(a, b, 0) = 0$ for some *s*, which implies that $x_b(0) = 0$.

 $\frac{2^{\circ} x_{2k}(n+1) = x_k(n)}{\text{Let } b = 2k, \text{ for } k < 2^{d-1}.$ For binary forms

$$(k)_2 = (b_{d-1}, b_{d-2}, \dots, b_1, b_0)$$
 and $(2k)_2 = (b'_{d-1}, b'_{d-2}, \dots, b'_1, b'_0)$

we have that $(2k)_2$ is obtained from $(k)_2$ with cyclic shift to the left by one position, i.e. $b'_{s\oplus 1} = b_s$. Also, with increasing *n* to n + 1 we have that the remainder of the division with *d* increases by 1 modulo *d*, i.e. $r' = r \oplus 1$. Now we will prove the equality $x_{2k}(n + 1) = x_k(n)$ by considering the following cases:

• If
$$a_s = b_{s\oplus r} \Rightarrow a_s = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{(s\oplus r)\oplus 1} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)} \Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = 1.$$

• If
$$a_s = 1$$
, $b_{s\oplus r} = 0 \Rightarrow a_s = 1$, $0 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{(s\oplus r)\oplus 1} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)} \Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = 0$.

- If $a_s = 0$, $b_{s\oplus r} = 1$, $s < d r 1 \Rightarrow a_s = 0$, $1 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)}$, $s < d (r \oplus 1) \Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = t$.
- If $a_s = 0$, $b_{s\oplus r} = 1$, $s \ge d r$, $r \ne d 1 \Rightarrow a_s = 0$, $1 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)'}$, $s \ge d (r + 1)$ $\Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = t + 1.$
- If r = d 1, then $r \oplus 1 = 0$, and also previous equality holds, but with different reasoning: if $a_s = 0$, $b_{s\oplus(d-1)} = 1$, $s \ge d - (d-1) = 1$, $f_s(a, k, r) = t + 1 \Rightarrow a_s = 0$, $1 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus(r\oplus 1)} = b'_{s\oplus 0}$, $s \le d - 0 = d$, then $f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = t' = t + 1$, because $n' = n + 1 = d \cdot t + (d - 1) + 1 = d \cdot (t + 1) + 0$ and again we get that $f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = t + 1$.
- If $a_s = 0$, $b_{s\oplus r} = 1$, $s = d r 1 \Rightarrow 1 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)}$. On the other hand we have that $b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)} = b'_0 = 0$, since this is the last digit in the binary form of even number 2*k*. Thus, we get that this case is not possible.

As in all cases, we get that $f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1)$, which entails that

$$x_k(n) = \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a, k, r) = \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a, 2k, r \oplus 1) = x_{2k}(n+1)$$

 $\frac{3^{\circ} x_{2k+1}(n+1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)}{\text{Let } b = 2k+1, \text{ for } k < 2^{d-1}.}$ For binary forms $(k)_2 = (b_{d-1}, b_{d-2}, \dots, b_0),$

$$(2^{d-1}+k)_2 = (b''_{d-1}, b''_{d-2}, \dots, b''_0), \qquad (2k+1)_2 = (b'_{d-1}, b'_{d-2}, \dots, b'_0)$$

it is true that $b_{d-1} = 0$, $b'_{d-1} = 1$, $b_s = b'_s = 0$ for s < d-1, while $(2k + 1)_2$ is obtained from $(2^{d-1} + k)_2$ with cyclic shift to the left by one position, i.e. $b'_{s\oplus 1} = b''_s$. The same as before we have that $r' = r \oplus 1$. Now we will prove the equality $x_{2k+1}(n + 1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)$ by considering the following cases:

- If $a_s = b_{s\oplus r}$, $r \neq d-1 \Rightarrow a_s = b_{s\oplus r} = b''_{s\oplus r} = b'_{(s\oplus r)\oplus 1} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)}$ $\Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2k + 1, r + 1) = 1.$
- If $a_s = 1$, $b_{s\oplus r} = 0$, $r \neq d 1 \Rightarrow a_s = 1$, $0 = b_{s\oplus r} = b''_{(s\oplus r)\oplus 1} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)}$ $\Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2k + 1, r + 1) = 0.$
- If s = d r 1, $a_s = 1$, then we have $a_s = 1$, $b_{s\oplus r} = b_{d-1} = 0 \Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = 0$; $a_s = 1$, $b''_{s\oplus r} = b''_{d-1} = 1 \Rightarrow f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = 1$; $a_s = 1$, $1 = b''_{s\oplus r} = b'_{(s\oplus r)\oplus 1} = b'_0 \Rightarrow f_s(a, 2k + 1, r \oplus 1) = 1$.
- If $a_s = 0$, $b_{s\oplus r} = 1$, $s < d r 1 \Rightarrow a_s = 0$, $1 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)}$, $s < d (r \oplus 1)$ $\Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2k + 1, r \oplus 1) = t$.

• If
$$a_s = 0$$
, $b_{s\oplus r} = 1$, $s \ge d - r \Rightarrow a_s = 0$, $1 = b_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus r} = b'_{s\oplus (r\oplus 1)}$, $s \ge d - (r+1)$
 $\Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2k + 1, r \oplus 1) = t + 1$.

• If s = d - r - 1 < d - r, $a_s = 0$, then we have $a_s = 0$, $b_{s\oplus r} = b_{d-1} = 0 \Rightarrow f_s(a, k, r) = 1$; $a_s = 0$, $b'_{s\oplus r} = b'_{d-1} = 1 \Rightarrow f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = t$; $a_s = 0$, $1 = b''_{s\oplus r} = b'_{(s\oplus r)\oplus 1} = b'_{0'}$, $s \le d - 0 \Rightarrow f_s(a, 2k + 1, r \oplus 1) = t' = t + 1$, because $n' = n + 1 = d \cdot t + (d - 1) + 1 = d \cdot (t + 1) + 0$.

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For s = d - r - 1 and $a_{d-r-1} = 1$ we get $f_s(a, k, r) = 0 \Rightarrow x_k(n) = 0$, and since $f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2k+1, r\oplus 1)$ for all positions $s \neq d - r - 1$, we have that $x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n) = x_{2k+1}(n+1)$, which entails equality $x_{2k+1}(n+1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)$. For s = d - r - 1 and $a_{d-r-1} = 0$ we get $f_s(a, k, r) = 1$, $f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = t$, $f_s(a, 2k + 1, r \oplus 1) = t + 1$, while $f_s(a, k, r) = f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2^{d-1} + k, r) = f_s(a, 2k + 1, r \oplus 1)$ for all positions $s \neq d - r - 1$, and we have that

$$\begin{aligned} x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n) &= \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a,k,r) + \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a,2^{d-1}+k,r) \\ &= f_{d-r-1}(a,k,r) \cdot \prod_{\substack{0 \le s \le d-1 \\ s \ne d-r-1}} f_s(a,k,r) + f_{d-r-1}(a,2^{d-1}+k,r) \cdot \prod_{\substack{0 \le s \le d-1 \\ s \ne d-r-1}} f_s(a,2^{d-1}+k,r) \\ &= 1 \cdot \prod_{\substack{0 \le s \le d-1 \\ s \ne d-r-1}} f_s(a,2k+1,r\oplus 1) + t \cdot \prod_{\substack{0 \le s \le d-1 \\ s \ne d-r-1}} f_s(a,2k+1,r\oplus 1) \\ &= (1+t) \cdot \prod_{\substack{0 \le s \le d-1 \\ s \ne d-r-1}} f_s(a,2k+1,r\oplus 1) = \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a,2k+1,r\oplus 1) = x_{2k+1}(n+1). \end{aligned}$$

In both cases we get that $x_{2k+1}(n+1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)$. \Box

We will illustrate this Theorem later, in Example 3.1. Now, we move on to the general case of the system (*).

Theorem 2.2. Suppose we have a system of 2^d linear recurrence equations of the form $x_{2k}(n + 1) = x_k(n)$ and $x_{2k+1}(n + 1) = x_k(n) + x_{2^{d-1}+k}(n)$ for $k = 0, 1, ..., 2^{d-1} - 1$, with initial conditions $x_0(0) = y_0$, $x_1(0) = y_1$, ..., $x_{2^d-1}(0) = y_{2^d-1}$, for arbitrary real numbers $y_0, y_1, ..., y_{2^d-1}$.

Then for $n = d \cdot t + r$, $0 \le r \le d - 1$, *the following equality is true:*

$$x_b(n) = \sum_{a=0}^{2^d-1} \left(y_a \cdot \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_s(a, b, r) \right).$$

Proof. This result is a direct consequence of Lemma 2.1 and the basic properties of the system of linear recurrence equations. \Box

3. Examples

Example 3.1. We will now illustrate Lema 2.1, for the case d = 3 and a = 4. Then we have the system

$$\begin{aligned} x_0(n+1) &= x_0(n), & x_1(n+1) &= x_0(n) + x_4(n), \\ x_2(n+1) &= x_1(n), & x_3(n+1) &= x_1(n) + x_5(n), \\ x_4(n+1) &= x_2(n), & x_5(n+1) &= x_2(n) + x_6(n), \\ x_6(n+1) &= x_3(n), & x_7(n+1) &= x_3(n) + x_7(n), \end{aligned}$$

with initial conditions $x_4(0) = 1$ and $x_b(0) = 0$ for $b \neq 4, 0 \le b \le 2^d - 1 = 7$.

Solution. We will take case analysis on all values of *b*.

• For a = 4 and b = 0 binary form $0_2 = 000$ has more zeros than binary form $4_2 = 100$, so by the Pigeonhole principle at least one position will be $a_s = 1$ and $b_{s\oplus r} = 0$. Then for each *n* the equality $x_0(n) = 0$ is satisfied. These conclusions are valid whenever the binary form $(b)_2$ has more zeros than $(a)_2!$

• For $a = 4_2 = 100$ and $b = 1_2 = 001$ when r = 0 or r = 2 we will have a position *s* such that $a_s = 1$ and $b_{s\oplus r} = 0$ (for r = 0, i.e. when there is no movement, $a_2 = 1$ and $b_2 = 0$; for r = 2, i.e. when moving to the right by two positions, $a_2 = 1$ and $b_{2\oplus 2} = b_1 = 0$). Then for $n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ and $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ it is true that $x_0(n) = 0$.

When r = 1 we have that

$$\begin{array}{l} a_0 = b_{0\oplus 1} = b_1 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_0(a, b, 1) = 1, \\ a_1 = b_{1\oplus 1} = b_2 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_1(a, b, 1) = 1, \\ a_2 = b_{2\oplus 1} = b_0 = 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_2(a, b, 1) = 1 \end{array}$$

and we have that $x_b(n) = x_1(n) = f_0(a, b, 1) \cdot f_1(a, b, 1) \cdot f_2(a, b, 1) = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ for $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Thus, we have shown that:

$$x_1(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & n = 3t \\ 1, & n = 3t + 1 \\ 0, & n = 3t + 2 \end{cases}$$

• For $a = 4_2 = 100$ and $b = 3_2 = 011$ when r = 0 we have that $a_2 = 1$ and $b_{2\oplus 0} = b_2 = 0$). Then for $n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ it is true that $x_3(n) = 0$. When r = 1 we have that

$$\begin{array}{l} a_0 = 0, \ b_{0\oplus 1} = b_1 = 1 \text{ and } s = 0 < 3 - 1 = d - r \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_0(a, b, 1) = t, \\ a_1 = b_{1\oplus 1} = b_2 = 0 \qquad \qquad \Rightarrow \quad f_1(a, b, 1) = 1, \\ a_2 = 1, \ b_{2\oplus 1} = b_0 = 1 \qquad \qquad \Rightarrow \quad f_2(a, b, 1) = 1 \end{array}$$

and we have that $x_b(n) = x_3(n) = f_0(a, b, 1) \cdot f_1(a, b, 1) \cdot f_2(a, b, 1) = t \cdot 1 \cdot 1 = t$ for $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. When r = 2 we have that

$$\begin{array}{ll} a_0 = 0, \ b_{0\oplus 2} = b_2 = 0 & \Rightarrow & f_0(a,b,1) = 1, \\ a_1 = 0, \ b_{1\oplus 2} = b_0 = 1 \text{ and } s = 1 \geqslant 3 - 2 = d - r & \Rightarrow & f_1(a,b,1) = t + 1, \\ a_2 = 1, \ b_{2\oplus 1} = b_0 = 1 & \Rightarrow & f_2(a,b,1) = 1 \end{array}$$

and we have that $x_b(n) = x_3(n) = 1 \cdot (t+1) \cdot 1 = t+1$ for $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. Thus, we have shown that:

$$x_3(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & n = 3t \\ t, & n = 3t + 1 \\ t + 1, & n = 3t + 2. \end{cases}$$

• For $a = 4_2 = 100$ and $b = 7_2 = 111$ when r = 0 we have $x_7(n) = t \cdot t \cdot 1 = t^2$ for $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. When r = 1 we have that $x_7(n) = t \cdot t \cdot 1 = t^2$ for $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. When r = 2 we have that $x_7(n) = t \cdot (t + 1) \cdot 1 = t(t + 1)$ for $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. Thus, we have shown that:

$$x_7(n) = \begin{cases} t^2, & n = 3t \\ t^2, & n = 3t + 1 \\ t(t+1), & n = 3t + 2. \end{cases}$$

• Analogously we obtain:

$$x_{2}(n) = \begin{cases} 0, & n = 3t \\ 0, & n = 3t + 1 \\ 1, & n = 3t + 2, \end{cases} \quad x_{4}(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 3t \\ 0, & n = 3t + 1 \\ 0, & n = 3t + 2, \end{cases}$$
$$x_{5}(n) = \begin{cases} t, & n = 3t \\ t, & n = 3t + 1 \\ 0, & n = 3t + 2, \end{cases} \quad x_{6}(n) = \begin{cases} t, & n = 3t \\ 0, & n = 3t + 1 \\ t, & n = 3t + 2 \end{cases}$$

All these sequences can be found in [8]: x_0 is <u>A000004</u>, x_1 is shifted <u>A079978</u>, x_2 and x_4 are <u>A079978</u>, x_3 is <u>A087509</u>, x_5 is shifted <u>A087508</u>, x_6 is shifted <u>A087509</u>, x_7 is <u>A008133</u>.

This particular example can be solved by using generating functions, such as in [6]. Although generating functions and then Cramers method can be used to solve the system (*) in general, we think that results in Lemma 2.1 and Theorem 2.2 are more straightforward.

The following discussion illustrates the connection between the system considered in the paper, and restricted permutations from [1].

Let C_{md+1-q} denote the number of combinations where the smallest element is equal to md + 1 - q, for q = 0, 1, ..., md, and can be obtained from the initial combination (r + 1, r + 2, ..., r + k + 1) using techniques developed in [1] (those techniques count the number of permutations that satisfy $p(i) - i \in S$ and $S = \{-d, -d + 1, ..., md\} \setminus \{-d, 0, md\}$). Then, C_{md+1-q} is equal to

$$C_{md+1-q} = \sum_{b=0}^{2^{d}-1} x_{b}(q) = \sum_{b=0}^{2^{d}-1} \prod_{s=0}^{d-1} f_{s}(2^{d-1}, b, r),$$

where $q = d \cdot t + r$.

Example 3.2. Let us illustrate these considerations for the case d = 3 and m = 2 (when k = d = 3 and r = md = 6).

Solution. Then we deal with the permutations that satisfy $p(i) - i \in S$, $S = \{-3, -2, ..., 5, 6\} \setminus \{-3, 0, 6\} = \{-2, -1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, i.e. $I = \{-3, 0, 6\}$ and $r + 1 - I = 7 - I = \{10, 7, 1\}$. The number of such permutations is given in sequence <u>A224810</u> at [8].

The set *C* consists of all combinations of the set $\mathbb{N}_{k+r+1} = \{1, 2, ..., 10\}$, with k+1 = 4 elements and containing a number k + r + 1 = 10. The set *C* has $|C| = \binom{9}{3} = 84$ elements, but most of them are not relevant to the technique developed in [1], because they cannot be generated starting from the initial combination (7, 8, 9, 10).

In Example 3.1 we get the values of all sequences x_b that occur in the previous theorem.

For q = 3t we have that

$$C_{md+1-q} = x_0(q) + x_1(q) + x_2(q) + x_3(q) + x_4(q) + x_5(q) + x_6(q) + x_7(q)$$

= 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 1 + t + t + t² = (t + 1)²,

for q = 3t + 1 we have that

$$C_{md+1-a} = 0 + 1 + 0 + t + 0 + t + 0 + t^{2} = (t + 1)^{2},$$

for q = 3t + 2 we have that

$$C_{md+1-a} = 0 + 0 + 1 + (t+1) + 0 + 0 + t + t(t+1) = (t+1)(t+2).$$

Thus, we find that for combinations starting with md + 1 - q the following equality is satisfied:

$$C_{md+1-q} = \begin{cases} (t+1)^2, & q = 3t \\ (t+1)^2, & q = 3t+1 \\ (t+1)(t+2), & q = 3t+2 \end{cases}$$

This sequence is A008133 at [8].

For q = 0 we have $(0+1)^2 = 1$ combination that begins with md + 1 - q = 7. This is the initial combination (7, 8, 9, 10).

For q = 1 we have $(0 + 1)^2 = 1$ combination that begins with 6: (6,7,8,10).

For q = 2 we have $(0 + 1) \cdot (0 + 2) = 2$ combinations starting with 5: (5, 7, 9, 10), (5, 6, 7, 10). For q = 3 we have $(1 + 1)^2 = 4$ combinations starting with 4: (4, 8, 9, 10), (4, 6, 8, 10), (4, 5, 9, 10), (4, 5, 6, 10).

For q = 4 we have $(1 + 1)^2 = 4$ combinations starting with 3: (3, 7, 8, 10), (3, 5, 7, 10), (3, 4, 8, 10), (3, 4, 5, 10). For q = 5 we have $(1 + 1) \cdot (1 + 2) = 6$ combinations starting with 2: (2, 7, 9, 10), (2, 6, 7, 10), (2, 4, 9, 10),

(2,4,6,10), (2,3,7,10), (2,3,4,10).

For q = 6 we have $(2 + 1)^2 = 9$ combinations starting with 1: (1, 8, 9, 10), (1, 6, 8, 10), (1, 5, 9, 10), (1, 5, 6, 10), (1, 3, 8, 10), (1, 3, 5, 10), (1, 2, 9, 10), (1, 2, 6, 10), (1, 2, 3, 10).

Altogether we have

 $1 + 1 + 2 + 4 + 4 + 6 + 9 = 27 = (m + 1)^d$

combinations which occur in the technique developed in [1]. We get a $(m+1)^d \times (m+1)^d$ matrix as the matrix of the reduced system of linear recurrence equations. Furthermore, the generating function corresponding to the restricted permutations is a rational function P(z)/Q(z). Also, the denominator Q(z) is of degree less than or equal to $(m+1)^d$, i.e. deg $Q(z) \le (m+1)^d$, which is significantly less than $|C| = \binom{(m+1)d}{d}$, the total number of combinations that occur in technique developed in [1].

In this particular case, we have that deg $Q(z) = 24 \le 27 = (m + 1)^d$, because

$$A(z) = \frac{1 + z^3 - z^4 - z^5 + z^6 - 2z^7 - z^8 - z^9 - 2z^{10} - z^{12} - z^{13} - z^{15}}{1 - z + z^3 - 2z^4 + 2z^6 - 4z^7 - 2z^9 - 2z^{10} - 4z^{12} + 2z^{13} - 2z^{15} + 4z^{16} + 2z^{18} + 2z^{19} + z^{21} + z^{22} + z^{24}}.$$

The denominator of A(z) is $(z-1)(z^2 + z + 1)(z^3 + z - 1)(z^{18} + 3z^{15} + 7z^{12} + 9z^9 + 7z^6 + 3z^3 + 1)$ and the numerator is $2 - (z+1)(z^2 - z + 1)(z^{12} + z^{10} + z^7 + z^6 + z^5 + z^4 - 2z^3 + 1)$. It is significantly less than $|C| = \binom{(m+1)d}{d} = \binom{9}{3} = 84$. The sequence corresponding to A(z) is <u>A224810</u> in [8].

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