

8.2 Rational Generating Functions

The numerical sequences whose generating series are rational functions have an appealing characterization.

Theorem 8.2.1. *Fix a positive integer d . Given complex numbers c_1, c_2, \dots, c_d such that $c_d \neq 0$, consider the polynomial*

$$\begin{aligned} q(x) &:= 1 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots + c_d x^d \\ &= (1 - \lambda_1 x)^{m_1} (1 - \lambda_2 x)^{m_2} \cdots (1 - \lambda_k x)^{m_k} \end{aligned}$$

where the nonzero complex numbers $\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}, \dots, \lambda_k^{-1}$ are the distinct roots and m_j denotes the multiplicity of λ_j^{-1} for all $1 \leq j \leq k$. For any sequence (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) of complex numbers, the following conditions are equivalent:

(R1) *The generating series is a rational function such that*

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n x^n = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

where $p(x)$ is a polynomial in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ of degree less than d .

(R2) *For any nonnegative integer n , we have the recurrence*

$$a_{n+d} + c_1 a_{n+d-1} + c_2 a_{n+d-2} + \cdots + c_d a_n = 0.$$

(R3) *For all $1 \leq i \leq k$, there exists polynomials $g_i(x)$ of degree less than m_i such that, for all nonnegative integers n , we have the closed-formula $a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k g_i(n) \lambda_i^n$.*

Algebraic proof. For all $1 \leq \ell \leq 3$, consider the \mathbb{C} -vector space V_ℓ of all sequences satisfying condition (R ℓ); each set is clearly closed under taking linear combinations. Moreover, each \mathbb{C} -vector space V_ℓ has dimension d :

- in (R1), the d coefficients of $p(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ are arbitrary;
- in (R2), the initial values a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{d-1} are arbitrary;
- in (R3), the m_i coefficients of the polynomial $g_i \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ are arbitrary and we have $m_1 + m_2 + \cdots + m_k = d$.

To prove $V_i = V_j$, it suffices to show that $V_i \subseteq V_j$. Hence, it is enough to consider two cases. Suppose that the sequence (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) lies in V_1 .

$V_1 \subseteq V_2$: Extracting the coefficient of x^{n+d} from both sides of the equation

$$q(x) \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n x^n \right) = p(x)$$

produces the recurrence in (R2), so $V_1 \subseteq V_2$.

$V_1 \subseteq V_3$: Consider the partial fraction decomposition

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n x^n = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{g_i(x)}{(1 - \lambda_i x)^{m_i}} = \sum_{i=1}^k g_i(x) \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \binom{m_i + n - 1}{m_i - 1} \lambda_i^n x^n \right).$$

Writing $g_i(x) := g_{i,0} + g_{i,1}x + \cdots + g_{i,m_i-1}x^{m_i-1}$, we obtain

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n x^n = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^k \left(\sum_{j=1}^{m_i-1} g_{i,j} \binom{m_i+n-1}{m_i-1} \lambda_i^{-j} \right) \lambda_i^n \right] x^n$$

so we deduce that $V_1 \subseteq V_3$. \square

Eulerian numbers arise as the coefficients in the numerator for a simple rational generating series.

Problem 8.2.2 (Carlitz identity). For any nonnegative integer m , show that

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} n^m x^n = \frac{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle m \rangle_k x^{k+1}}{(1-x)^{m+1}}.$$

Inductive solution. Since $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} n^m x^n = \left(x \frac{d}{dx}\right)^m ((1-x)^{-1})$, it suffices to show that

$$\left(x \frac{d}{dx}\right)^m \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right) = \frac{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle m \rangle_k x^{k+1}}{(1-x)^{m+1}}.$$

When $m = 0$, we have $1 = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle 0 \rangle_k x^k$ because $\langle 0 \rangle_0 = 1$ and $\langle 0 \rangle_n = 0$ for all nonzero integers n . Hence, the base case holds. Assume that the identity holds for some nonnegative integer m . The induction hypothesis and the addition formula [3.3.4] for Eulerian numbers give

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(x \frac{d}{dx}\right)^{m+1} \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right) \\ &= \left(x \frac{d}{dx}\right) \left[\left(x \frac{d}{dx}\right)^m \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right) \right] \\ &= \left(x \frac{d}{dx}\right) \left[\frac{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle m \rangle_k x^{k+1}}{(1-x)^{m+1}} \right] \\ &= \frac{x}{(1-x)^{m+1}} \left[\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle m \rangle_k (k+1) x^k \right] + \frac{(m+1)x}{(1-x)^{m+2}} \left[\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle m \rangle_k x^{k+1} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-x)^{m+2}} \left[\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (k+1) \langle m \rangle_k x^{k+1} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} (m-k) \langle m \rangle_k x^{k+2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-x)^{m+2}} \left[\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \left((k+1) \langle m \rangle_k + (m-k+1) \langle m \rangle_{k-1} \right) x^{k+1} \right] \\ &= \frac{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \langle m+1 \rangle_k x^{k+1}}{(1-x)^{m+2}}. \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Using a recurrence relation to create a sequence of complex numbers for all integer subscripts has a useful interpretation in terms of rational functions.

Corollary 8.2.3. Fix a positive integer d and consider complex numbers c_1, c_2, \dots, c_d such that $c_d \neq 0$. Given the doubly-infinite sequence $(\dots, a_{-2}, a_{-1}, a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots)$ of complex numbers satisfying

$$a_{n+d} + c_1 a_{n+d-1} + c_2 a_{n+d-2} + \cdots + c_d a_n = 0$$

for all integers n , the generating series

$$f(x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n x^n \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{-n-1} x^{n+1}$$

are both rational functions. Moreover, we have $g(x) = -f(1/x)$ as rational functions.

Sketch of proof. Theorem 8.2.1 establishes that $f(x) = p(x)/q(x)$ where $q(x) = 1 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \cdots + c_d x^d$. The hypothesis on the doubly-infinity sequence implies that $q(x) (\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} a_n x^n) = 0$. Since multiplication by the polynomial $q(x)$ is linear, we obtain

$$q(x) \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{-n-1} x^{-n-1} \right) = -q(x) \left(\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_n x^n \right) = -p(x).$$

Hence, the substitution $x \mapsto 1/x$ gives

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} a_{-n-1} x^{n+1} = -\frac{p(1/x)}{q(1/x)} = -f(1/x). \quad \square$$

Corollary 8.2.3 is a statement about the equality of rational functions. For example, when $a_j = 1$ for all integers j , we have $f(x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x^n = (1-x)^{-1}$ and $g(x) := \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x^{n+1} = x(1-x)^{-1}$, so

$$-f(1/x) = \frac{1}{1-1/x} = -\frac{x}{x-1} = \frac{x}{1-x} = g(x).$$

9

Hypergeometric Functions

9.0 Hypergeometric Series

The ratio of consecutive terms in a geometric series $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} a_k$ is constant: for any nonnegative integer k , we have $a_{k+1}/a_k = r$ for some fixed complex number r . It follows that, for all nonnegative integers k , we have $a_k = a_0 r^k$. Generalizing this observation, we introduce a new class of series.

Definition 9.0.1. In a *hypergeometric series* $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} t_k$, the ratio of consecutive terms is a fixed rational function in the summation index: for any nonnegative integer k , we have

$$\frac{t_{k+1}}{t_k} = \frac{p(k)}{q(k)},$$

where $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[x]$.

Problem 9.0.2. Verify that these series are hypergeometric:

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} x^n, \quad \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} k!, \quad \sum_{j \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{(2j+7)!}{(j-3)!}.$$

Solution. Since

$$\frac{x^{n+1}}{x^n} = x, \quad \frac{(k+1)!}{k!} = k+1, \quad \frac{(2j+9)!(j-3)!}{(j-2)!(2j+7)!} = \frac{(2j+9)(2j+9)}{j-2},$$

we see that all three series are hypergeometric. \square

When we normalize the series by assuming that $t_0 = 1$, there is an accepted notation for a hypergeometric function. In the ratio of consecutive terms, factor the numerator and denominator completely as

$$\frac{t_{k+1}}{t_k} = \frac{p(k)}{q(k)} = \frac{(k+a_1)(k+a_2)\cdots(k+a_m)}{(k+b_1)(k+b_2)\cdots(k+b_n)} \frac{x}{k+1}$$

where $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n, x \in \mathbb{C}$. The hypergeometric series with the terms t_k is denoted by

$$F\left(\begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x\right) = {}_mF_n\left(\begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x\right) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} t_k.$$

The distinguished factor $(k+1)$ in the denominator is a historical tradition. If there were no factor of $(k+1)$ in the denominator of your ratio of consecutive terms, then put it in and compensate by putting extra factor in the numerator.

Problem 9.0.3. Describe $\exp(x)$ and $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} 2^k / (k!)^2$ in terms of standard notation for a hypergeometric series.

Proof. Since

$$\exp(x) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{x^k}{k!} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} \frac{k!}{x^k} = \frac{x}{k+1}$$

we see that $\exp(x) = F(\bar{}; x) = F(\bar{1}; x)$. Similarly, we have

$$\frac{2^{k+1}}{((k+1)!)^2} \frac{(k!)^2}{2^k} = \frac{2}{(k+1)^2},$$

so it follows that $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{2^k}{(k!)^2} = F(\bar{1}; 2) = F(\bar{1} \ 1; 2)$. \square

Remark 9.0.4. We do not change a hypergeometric function if we cancel a parameter that occurs in both the numerator and denominator or conversely if we insert two identical parameters.

Problem 9.0.5. Demonstrate that

$$F\left(\begin{matrix} r & 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix}; x\right) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^r} \quad \text{and} \quad F\left(\begin{matrix} -r & 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix}; -x\right) = (1+x)^r.$$

Proof. The generalized binomial theorem states that

$$(1-x)^{-r} = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \binom{r}{k} x^k \quad \text{and} \quad (1+x)^r = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \binom{r}{k} x^k,$$

so the ratio of consecutive terms are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{r^{\overline{k+1}} x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} \frac{k!}{r^{\overline{k}} x^k} &= \frac{r(r+1)(r+2) \cdots (r+k) x^{k+1}}{(k+1)(r)(r+1)(r+2) \cdots (r+k-1) x^k} = \frac{(k+r)x}{(k+1)}, \\ \frac{r^{\overline{k+1}} x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} \frac{k!}{r^{\underline{k}} x^k} &= \frac{r(r-1)(r-2) \cdots (r-k) x^{k+1}}{(k+1)(r)(r-1)(r-2) \cdots (r-k+1) x^k} = \frac{(r-k)x}{(k+1)} = \frac{(k+(-r))(-x)}{(k+1)}. \end{aligned}$$

Since the initial terms are 1, we deduce the given formula. \square

Problem 9.0.6. Is the Bessel function

$$J_p(x) := \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{(-1)^k \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2k+p}}{k! (k+p)!}$$

a hypergeometric function?

Proof. The ratio of consecutive terms is

$$\frac{(-1)^{k+1} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2k+2+p}}{(k+1)! (k+p+1)!} \frac{k! (k+p)!}{(-1)^k \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^{2k+p}} = \frac{-\frac{x^2}{4}}{(k+1)(k+p+1)}$$

and initial term is $\frac{1}{p!} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^p$, so $J_p(x) = \frac{1}{p!} \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^p F(\bar{p+1}; -\frac{x^2}{4})$. \square

Proposition 9.0.7. The general hypergeometric series is

$$F\left(\begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x\right) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{a_1^{\overline{k}} a_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots a_m^{\overline{k}}}{b_1^{\overline{k}} b_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots b_n^{\overline{k}}} \frac{x^k}{k!}.$$

Proof. Since $a^{\overline{k+1}} = (a)(a+1)\cdots(a+k-1)(a+k) = a^{\overline{k}}(a+k)$, the ratio of consecutive terms is

$$\left(\frac{a_1^{\overline{k+1}} a_2^{\overline{k+1}} \cdots a_m^{\overline{k+1}} x^{k+1}}{b_1^{\overline{k+1}} b_2^{\overline{k+1}} \cdots b_n^{\overline{k+1}} (k+1)!} \right) \left(\frac{b_1^{\overline{k}} b_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots b_n^{\overline{k}} k!}{a_1^{\overline{k}} a_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots a_m^{\overline{k}} x^k} \right) = \frac{(a_1+k)(a_2+k)\cdots(a_m+k)}{(b_1+k)(b_2+k)\cdots(b_n+k)} \frac{x}{k+1},$$

and the initial term is 1. Therefore, the right side is the specified hypergeometric function. \square

Remark 9.0.8. If any of the upper parameters a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m is a nonpositive integer, then the general hypergeometric series is a polynomial, otherwise is a power series.

Remark 9.0.9. There are some surprisingly simple identities for differentiating hypergeometric functions:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(x \frac{d}{dx} + a_1 \right) F \left(\begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x \right) &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{(k+a_1) a_1^{\overline{k}} a_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots a_m^{\overline{k}} x^k}{b_1^{\overline{k}} b_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots b_n^{\overline{k}} k!} \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{a_1(a_1+1)^{\overline{k}} a_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots a_m^{\overline{k}} x^k}{b_1^{\overline{k}} b_2^{\overline{k}} \cdots b_n^{\overline{k}} k!} = a_1 F \left(\begin{matrix} a_1+1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x \right) \\ \left(x \frac{d}{dx} + b_1 - 1 \right) F \left(\begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x \right) &= (b_1 - 1) F \left(\begin{matrix} a_1 & a_2 & \cdots & a_m \\ b_1-1 & b_2 & \cdots & b_n \end{matrix}; x \right) \end{aligned}$$

Exercises

Problem 9.0.10. A *Gaussian* hypergeometric series is given by

$$F \left(\begin{matrix} a & b \\ c \end{matrix}; x \right) := \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \frac{a^{\overline{k}} b^{\overline{k}} x^k}{c^{\overline{k}} k!}.$$

- (i) Show that the Gaussian hypergeometric function is a solution to the differential equation

$$x(1-x) \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (c - (a+b+1)x) \frac{dy}{dx} - ab y = 0.$$

- (ii) Establish the reflection identity

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^a} F \left(\begin{matrix} a & b \\ c \end{matrix}; \frac{-x}{1-x} \right) = F \left(\begin{matrix} a & c-b \\ c \end{matrix}; x \right).$$

9.1 Indefinite Sums

The indefinite summation problem asks when $s_n := \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} t_k$ has a closed form that does not involve the summation sign. For any nonnegative integer n , we regard the indefinite sum s_n as the discrete analogue of an antiderivative. Instead of its derivative being the integrand, its difference is the summand: $s_{n+1} - s_n = t_n$. This equation implies that

$$\frac{t_{n+1}}{t_n} = \frac{s_{n+2} - s_{n+1}}{s_{n+1} - s_n} = \frac{s_{n+2}/s_{n+1} - 1}{1 - s_n/s_{n+1}}.$$

It follows that, when s_n is hypergeometric, t_n is also hypergeometric. In 1970's, **Bill Gosper** discovered a procedure for finding sums of hypergeometric terms that are hypergeometric.

Algorithm 9.1.1 (Gosper).

input: a hypergeometric term t_n

output: a hypergeometric term s_n such that $s_{n+1} - s_n = t_n$
if one exists, otherwise null.

Write $\frac{t_{n+1}}{t_n} = \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \frac{h(n+1)}{h(n)}$ where $f, g, h \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ and $\gcd(f(n), g(n+j)) = 1$ for all nonnegative integers j .

If there exists a nonzero polynomial $p(n)$ such that $f(n)p(n+1) - g(n-1)p(n) = h(n)$

then return $\frac{g(n-1)p(n)}{h(n)} t_n$

else return null.

Remark 9.1.2. The Gosper algorithm determines the indefinite sum up to a constant: $s_n - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} t_k \in \mathbb{C}$.

Before analyzing the correctness of this algorithm, we first illustrate it with a few examples.

Problem 9.1.3. Can $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k(k!)$ be expressed in closed form?

Solution. Following the Gosper algorithm, we have

$$\frac{t_{n+1}}{t_n} = \frac{(n+1)(n+1)!}{(n)(n!)} = \frac{(n+1)(n+1)}{n} = \binom{n+1}{1} \binom{n+1}{n} = \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \frac{h(n+1)}{h(n)}$$

and $\gcd(n+1, 1) = 1$. The constant polynomial $p(n) = 1$ satisfies

$$f(n)p(n+1) - p(n) = (n+1)(1) - (1) = n = h(n),$$

so we conclude that $s_n := (n n!)/n = n!$ satisfies

$$s_{n+1} - s_n = (n+1)! - n! = (n+1-1)(n!) = (n)(n!).$$

Thus, we have $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k(k!) = n! - 1$ for all nonnegative integers n . \square

Problem 9.1.4. Can the sum

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k^2 + 3k + 1)(k!)$$

be expressed in closed form?

Solution. Following the Gosper algorithm, we have

$$\frac{t_{n+1}}{t_n} = \frac{((n+1)^2 + 3(n+1) + 1)(n+1)!}{(n^2 + 3n + 1)(n!)} = \binom{n+1}{1} \binom{(n+1)^2 + 3(n+1) + 1}{n^2 + 3n + 1} = \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \frac{h(n+1)}{h(n)}$$

and $\gcd(n+1, 1) = 1$. If $p(n) = \alpha n + \beta$ and

$$\begin{aligned} f(n)p(n+1) - p(n) &= (n+1)(\alpha(n+1) + \beta) - (\alpha n + \beta) \\ &= \alpha n^2 + (\alpha + \beta)n + \alpha = n^2 + 3n + 1 = h(n), \end{aligned}$$

we see that $p(n) = n + 2$. Hence, the expression

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &:= \frac{g(n-1)p(n)}{h(n)} t_n \\ &= \frac{n+2}{n^2+3n+1} (n^2+3n+1)(n!) = (n+2)n! \end{aligned}$$

satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} s_{n+1} - s_n &= (n+3)((n+1)!) - (n+2)(n!) \\ &= ((n+3)(n+1) - (n+2))(n!) \\ &= (n^2+3n+1)(n!) = t_n \end{aligned}$$

and $\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (k^2+3k+1)(k!) = (n+2)(n!) - 2$ for all nonnegative integers n . \square

To establish the correctness of the Gosper algorithm, we first collect a few preliminary results.

Lemma 9.1.5. *The maximality of the degree of the polynomial h implies that $\gcd(f(n), g(n+j)) = 1$ for all nonnegative integers j .*

Proof by contradiction. For some positive integer j , suppose that $q(n) = \gcd(f(n), g(n+j)) \neq 1$. It follows that $q(n)$ divides $f(n)$ and $q(n-j)$ divides $g(n)$. Hence, by setting $f(n) = q(n)f^*(n)$ and $g(n) = q(n-j)g^*(n)$, we obtain

$$\frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \frac{q(n)}{q(n-1)} \frac{q(n-1)}{q(n-2)} \cdots \frac{q(n-j+1)}{q(n-j)} \frac{f^*(n)}{g^*(n)},$$

and moving the product $q(n)q(n-1)\cdots q(n-j+1)$ into $h(n)$ contradicts the maximality of the degree. \square

Lemma 9.1.6. *The output $s_n = \frac{g(n-1)t_n}{h(n)} p(n)$ is hypergeometric if and only if $p(n)$ is a rational function.*

Proof.

\Rightarrow : Suppose that $s_n = \frac{g(n-1)t_n}{h(n)} p(n)$ is hypergeometric. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} p(n) &= \frac{h(n)s_n}{g(n-1)t_n} \\ &= \frac{h(n)s_n}{g(n-1)(s_{n+1}-s_n)} = \frac{h(n)}{g(n-1)\left(1-\frac{s_n}{s_{n+1}}\right)} \end{aligned}$$

so $p(n)$ is a rational function.

\Leftarrow : Suppose that $p(n)$ is a rational function. The sequence s_n is hypergeometric because

$$\frac{s_{n+1}}{s_n} = \frac{g(n)t_{n+1}p(n+1)}{h(n+1)} \frac{h(n)}{g(n-1)t_n p(n)} = \frac{g(n)}{g(n-1)} \frac{h(n)}{h(n+1)} \frac{p(n+1)}{p(n)} \frac{t_{n+1}}{t_n}$$

and t_n is also hypergeometric. \square

Lemma 9.1.7. *If the rational function $p(n)$ satisfies*

$$f(n)p(n+1) - g(n-1)p(n) = h(n),$$

then the output $s_n = \frac{g(n-1)t_n}{h(n)}p(n)$ satisfies $s_{n+1} - s_n = t_n$.

Proof. Since $\frac{t_{n+1}}{t_n} = \frac{f(n)h(n+1)}{g(n)h(n)}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} s_{n+1} - s_n &= \frac{g(n)t_{n+1}p(n+1)}{h(n+1)} - \frac{g(n-1)t_n p(n)}{h(n)} \\ &= t_n \left(\frac{f(n)p(n+1)}{h(n)} - \frac{g(n-1)p(n)}{h(n)} \right) \\ &= \frac{t_n}{h(n)}(f(n)p(n+1) - g(n-1)p(n)) = t_n. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

It remains to show that $p(n)$ must be a polynomial.