

# NDMI011: Combinatorics and Graph Theory 1

## Lecture #2

### Generating functions (part I)

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- 1 Partial fractions;

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- ① Partial fractions;
- ② A review of Taylor (and Maclaurin) series;

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- ① Partial fractions;
- ② A review of Taylor (and Maclaurin) series;
- ③ An introduction to generating functions.

## Part I: Partial fractions

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- So, we write

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- So,

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

In general, suppose  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are polynomials with complex coefficients such that  $\deg p(x) < \deg q(x)$ , and such that

$$q(x) = c(x - \alpha_1)^{\beta_1} \dots (x - \alpha_t)^{\beta_t},$$

where  $c$  is a non-zero complex number,  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t$  are pairwise distinct complex numbers, and  $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t$  are positive integers.

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Then there exist complex numbers

$A_{1,1}, \dots, A_{1,\beta_1}, \dots, A_{t,1}, \dots, A_{t,\beta_t}$  such that

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \frac{A_{1,1}}{x - \alpha_1} + \dots + \frac{A_{1,\beta_1}}{(x - \alpha_1)^{\beta_1}} + \dots + \frac{A_{t,1}}{x - \alpha_t} + \dots + \frac{A_{t,\beta_t}}{(x - \alpha_t)^{\beta_t}}.$$

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Finding  $A_{1,1}, \dots, A_{1,\beta_1}, \dots, A_{t,1}, \dots, A_{t,\beta_t}$  reduces to solving a system of linear equations, as in the example that we considered.

- For example:

$$\frac{x^5 - 7x + 1}{7(x-2)^3(x+1)^2(x+2)^4} = \frac{A}{x-2} + \frac{B}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{C}{(x-2)^3} + \frac{D}{x+1} + \frac{E}{(x+1)^2} +$$
$$+ \frac{F}{x+2} + \frac{G}{(x+2)^2} + \frac{H}{(x+2)^3} + \frac{I}{(x+2)^4}.$$

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- However, finding  $A, B, \dots, I$  would be computationally messy...
- See the Lecture Notes for another fully worked out example.

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- Then we first perform polynomial division, and then we perform our procedure on the remainder.
- For instance:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{3x^4-3x^3+1}{x^2(x-1)} &= 3x + \frac{1}{x^2(x-1)} \\ &= 3x - \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x-1}\end{aligned}$$

## Part II: A review of Taylor (and Maclaurin) series

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### Definition

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- The Taylor series  $T^{f,0}(x)$  (here, we have  $a = 0$ ) is called the *Maclaurin series*.

Here are the Maclaurin series of some familiar functions (from analysis):

$$(i) T^{\exp(x),0}(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \cdots;$$

$$(ii) T^{\sin x,0}(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} + \cdots;$$

$$(iii) T^{\cos x,0}(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \cdots;$$

$$(iv) T^{\ln(1+x),0}(x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} + \cdots;$$

$$(v) T^{(1+x)^\alpha,0}(x) = \binom{\alpha}{0} + \binom{\alpha}{1}x + \binom{\alpha}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \binom{\alpha}{n}x^n + \cdots, \text{ where } \alpha \text{ is a fixed real number;}$$

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- Let's verify (v).
- Actually, what does  $\binom{\alpha}{k}$  mean when  $\alpha$  is a **real** number?



## Definition

For a real number  $\alpha$  and a non-negative integer  $k$ , we define

$$\binom{\alpha}{k} = \frac{\alpha(\alpha - 1)\dots(\alpha - k + 1)}{k!}.$$

In particular,  $\binom{\alpha}{0} = 1$ .

(v)  $T^{(1+x)^\alpha, 0}(x) = \binom{\alpha}{0} + \binom{\alpha}{1}x + \binom{\alpha}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \binom{\alpha}{n}x^n + \dots$ , where  $\alpha$  is a fixed real number.

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- By induction, for all integers  $k \geq 0$ :

$$\frac{d^k}{dx^k}(1+x)^\alpha = \alpha(\alpha-1)\dots(\alpha-k+1)(1+x)^{\alpha-k}.$$

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- And now (v) follows.

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- Even if it does converge, it need not converge to  $f(x)$ .
- Nevertheless, we have the following:

$$(1) \exp(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(2) \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} + \dots \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(3) \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots + (-1)^{\frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}} + \dots \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R};$$

$$(4) \ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} + \dots \text{ for all } x \in (-1, 1];$$

$$(5) (1+x)^\alpha = \binom{\alpha}{0} + \binom{\alpha}{1}x + \binom{\alpha}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \binom{\alpha}{n}x^n + \dots \text{ for } x \in (-1, 1), \text{ where } \alpha \text{ is a fixed real number};$$

$$(6) \frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n + \dots \text{ for } x \in (-1, 1).$$



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- (5) is called the “Generalized Binomial Theorem.”

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- (5) is called the “Generalized Binomial Theorem.”
- If  $\alpha$  is a non-negative integer, then for integers  $k > \alpha$ , we have  $\binom{\alpha}{k} = 0$ , and so

$$(1+x)^\alpha = \binom{\alpha}{0} + \binom{\alpha}{1}x + \cdots + \binom{\alpha}{\alpha}x^\alpha,$$

which is what we also get via the (finite) Binomial Theorem.

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- (6)  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n + \dots$  for  $x \in (-1, 1)$ .
- For a constant  $a \neq 0$ , an integer  $t \geq 1$ , and a sufficiently small value of  $x$ , we can substitute  $ax^t$  for  $x$  in the above equations.

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- (2)  $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} + \dots$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
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- (4)  $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} + \dots$  for all  $x \in (-1, 1]$ ;
- (5)  $(1+x)^\alpha = \binom{\alpha}{0} + \binom{\alpha}{1}x + \binom{\alpha}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \binom{\alpha}{n}x^n + \dots$  for  $x \in (-1, 1)$ , where  $\alpha$  is a fixed real number;
- (6)  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n + \dots$  for  $x \in (-1, 1)$ .

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- For example, by substituting  $2x^3$  for  $x$  in (6), we get that

$$\frac{1}{1-2x^3} = 1 + 2x^3 + 4x^6 + \cdots + 2^n x^{3n} + \dots$$

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- (6) follows from (5), with  $\alpha = -1$  and  $-x$  substituted for  $x$ .

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- In working with generating functions, we will not worry about exactly how small  $x$  needs to be to make our equations work.
- We simply need that they work for values of  $x$  in some (no matter how small) open neighborhood of zero.



## Part III: Generating functions

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- Motivating example:

*How many ways are there to pay 21 Kč, assuming we have six 1 Kč coins, five 2 Kč coins, and four 5 Kč coins?*

(Here, we treat all coins of the same value as the same. So, if we happened to use three 1 Kč coins, we do not care which particular three we chose.)

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- We are looking for the number of solutions to the equation

$$i_1 + i_2 + i_5 = 21,$$

with  $i_1 \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ ,  $i_2 \in \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$ , and  $i_5 \in \{0, 5, 10, 15, 20\}$ .

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- This is precisely the coefficient in front of  $x^{21}$  in the following polynomial:

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) = & (1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6) \\ & \times (1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + x^8 + x^{10}) \\ & \times (1 + x^5 + x^{10} + x^{15} + x^{20}) \end{aligned}$$

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- Indeed, we obtain  $x^{21}$  by selecting some  $x^{i_1}$  from the first term of the product, some  $x^{i_2}$  from the second, and some  $x^{i_5}$  from the third, in such a way that  $i_1 + i_2 + i_5 = 21$ .

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- The number of ways of selecting  $i_1, i_2, i_5$  is precisely the coefficient in front of  $x^{21}$  in the polynomial  $p(x)$ .

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- In this case, it is a polynomial, but in general, it is a (potentially infinite) series.

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Suppose  $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is some infinite sequence of real (or complex) numbers. The *generating function* of this sequence is the power series

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- An application of generating functions: difference equations.

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For a positive integer  $k$ , a *homogeneous linear difference equation of degree  $k$*  is an equation of the form

$$y_{n+k} = a_{k-1}y_{n+k-1} + a_{k-2}y_{n+k-2} + \cdots + a_1y_{n+1} + a_0y_n,$$

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- One famous example of such a sequence is the *Fibonacci sequence*  $\{F_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , defined recursively as follows:
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- So, we defined the Fibonacci sequence using a second degree homogeneous linear difference equation.

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- But often, this isn't so easy!
- What is a closed formula for the  $n$ -th Fibonacci number  $F_n$ ??

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- However, in practice, if our difference equation is of high degree, this may be difficult or impossible to do due to problems with factoring polynomials of high degree.
- Let's show how this can be done for sequences defined via second degree homogeneous linear difference equations.
- We do this for the Fibonacci sequence (and there is one more worked out example in the Lecture Notes).

### Example

Find a closed formula of the general term of the Fibonacci sequence  $\{F_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , defined recursively as follows:

- $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$ ;
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*Solution.*



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for  $\{F_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . We manipulate the above series as follows:

*Solution (continued).* Reminder:  $F_0 = 0$ ,  $F_1 = 1$ ,  
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$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n x^n \\ &= F_0 + F_1 x + x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_{n+2} x^n \\ &= x + x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (F_n + F_{n+1}) x^n \\ &= x + (x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n x^n) + (x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_{n+1} x^n) \\ &= x + (x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n x^n) + (x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_{n+1} x^{n+1}) \\ &= x + (x^2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n x^n) + (x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_n x^n) && \text{because } F_0 = 0 \\ &= x + x^2 f(x) + x f(x) \end{aligned}$$

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So, we got the equation  $f(x) = x + x^2 f(x) + x f(x)$ , which yields

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

*Solution (continued).*

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

$$= -\frac{x}{\left(x - \frac{-1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)\left(x - \frac{-1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)}$$

via quad. eq.

$$= -\frac{\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{5}}}{x - \frac{-1-\sqrt{5}}{2}} - \frac{\frac{-1+\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{5}}}{x - \frac{-1+\sqrt{5}}{2}}$$

via partial  
fractions

$$= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \frac{1}{1-x\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}} - \frac{1}{1-x\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}} \right)$$

via algebra

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \left( -\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n x^n \right) + \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n x^n \right) \right)$$

via Maclaurin  
expansion

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1+\sqrt{5})^n - (1-\sqrt{5})^n}{2^n \sqrt{5}} x^n$$

*Solution (continued).* So:

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We can verify that this works by induction (see the Lecture Notes).

- We defined the Fibonacci sequence  $\{F_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  recursively as follows:
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- We have (check this!) that:

$$F_n = \frac{\varphi^n - (1-\varphi)^n}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{\varphi^n - (-\varphi)^{-n}}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

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### Example

Let  $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence defined recursively as follows:

- $a_0 = 1$ ;
- $a_{n+1} = 7a_n + 6^{n+1}$  for all integers  $n \geq 0$ .

Find a closed formula for  $a_n$ .



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*Solution.* We consider the generating function  $a(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for the sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . We manipulate  $a(x)$  as follows.

*Solution (continued).* Reminder:  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_{n+1} = 7a_n + 6^{n+1}$   
 $\forall n \geq 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned}a(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \\&= a_0 + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n+1} x^{n+1} \\&= 1 + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (7a_n + 6^{n+1}) x^{n+1} \\&= 1 + 7x \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right) + \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 6^n x^n \right) \\&= 7x \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right) + \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 6^n x^n \right) \\&= 7xa(x) + \frac{1}{1-6x}.\end{aligned}$$

*Solution(continued)*. So, we got:

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We now compute

$$\begin{aligned} a(x) &= \frac{1}{(7x-1)(6x-1)} \\ &= \frac{7}{1-7x} - \frac{6}{1-6x} && \text{via partial fractions} \\ &= \left(7 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 7^n x^n\right) - \left(6 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 6^n x^n\right) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (7^{n+1} - 6^{n+1})x^n. \end{aligned}$$

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We can check by induction that this is correct.