

# MATH 239 - Introduction to Combinatorics

Cameron Roopnarine

Last updated: April 4, 2020

# Contents

<b>7</b>	<b>Planar Graphs</b>	<b>2</b>
7.1	Planarity . . . . .	2
7.2	Stereographic Projection . . . . .	4
7.3	Platonic Solids . . . . .	6
7.4	Non-planar Graphs . . . . .	7
7.5	Kuratowski's Theorem . . . . .	10
7.6	Colouring and Planar Graphs . . . . .	10
<b>8</b>	<b>Matchings</b>	<b>13</b>
8.1	Matching . . . . .	13
<b>9</b>	<b>Tutorials</b>	<b>16</b>
9.1	Tutorial 1 . . . . .	16
9.2	Tutorial 2 . . . . .	17
9.3	Tutorial 3 . . . . .	20
9.4	Tutorial 4 . . . . .	21
9.5	Tutorial 5 . . . . .	23
9.6	Tutorial 6 . . . . .	24
9.7	Tutorial 6.5 . . . . .	25
9.8	Tutorial 7 . . . . .	27

## Chapter 7

# Planar Graphs

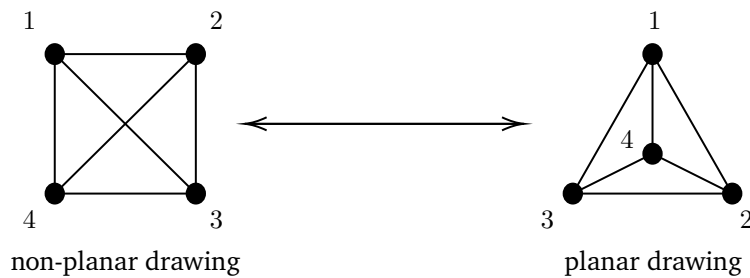
---

2020-03-23

---

### 7.1 Planarity

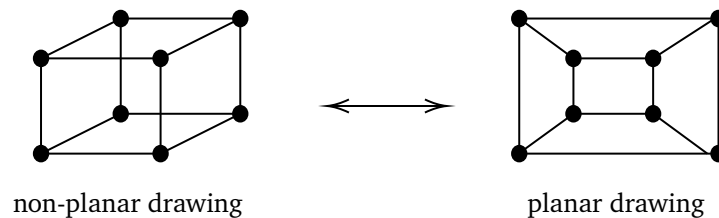
$K_4$  is the complete graph on 4 vertices. There are  $\binom{4}{2} = 6$  edges.



This picture is not the graph itself, it is a drawing of the graph. There are other drawings of the same graph, as seen on the right.

‘The same graph’ means that the vertex set and edge set are the same, which implies that they have the same set of adjacent pairs.

Informally, a planar drawing of a graph is a way of drawing the graph in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that the edges do not cross.



Clearly, the left is a non-planar drawing as there are 2 crossings within the graph. However, the 3-cube can be drawn in a planar way as seen on the right.

**DEFINITION 7.1.1.** Informally, a **planar drawing** of a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a mapping of the vertices of  $G$  to distinct points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and edges of  $G$  to curves between the appropriate pair of vertices in such a way that the edges intersect only at their common ends.

**DEFINITION 7.1.2.** A graph is **planar** if it has a planar drawing.

**EXAMPLE 7.1.3** (Planar).  $K_4$  and the 3-cube are both planar graphs.

**REMARK 7.1.4.** It is **not** correct to say that  $K_4$  is *sometimes* planar depending on how you draw it. It is correct to say that  $K_4$  is a planar graph because there exists a planar drawing.

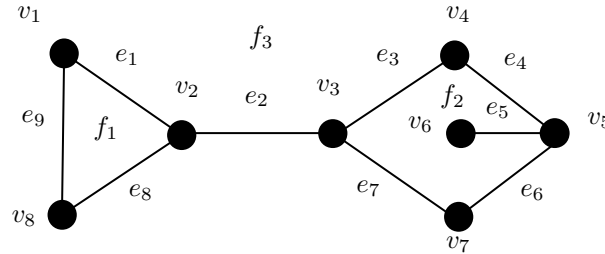
This definition is quite hard to utilize for showing a graph is *not planar*. In fact, there is no obvious way to prove there *exists* a graph that is not planar since there exists ‘infinitely’ many possible ways to draw a graph.

Notice that whether you have a planar drawing, you have *faces*.

**REMARK 7.1.5.** Many definitions about graph theory within this course will be informal, as defining them with rigour will be time consuming. Formal definitions can be found in a course like CO 342 (Introduction to Graph Theory), and courses about Topology.

**DEFINITION 7.1.6.** Given a drawing of a graph, let  $X$  be the set of points of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  that are part of the drawing. Informally, the **faces** of the drawing are the ‘connected regions’ of  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus X$ .

**REMARK 7.1.7.** A planar drawing of a graph is also called an **embedding**.



Each face of a connected planar drawing has a **boundary walk**. This is a closed walk of the graph that follows the boundary of the face.

The boundary walk for  $f_2$  is:

$$(v_3, e_3, v_4, e_4, v_5, e_5, v_6, e_5, v_5, e_6, v_7, e_7, v_3)$$

**DEFINITION 7.1.8.** If an edge  $e$  belongs to the boundary walk, of a face  $f$ , we say that  $e$  is **incident** with  $f$ .

**DEFINITION 7.1.9.** If two faces have boundary walks that share an edge, then they are **adjacent**.

**DEFINITION 7.1.10.** The **degree** of a face is the length of its boundary walk (the number of edges in the walk counting repetitions twice).

**EXAMPLE 7.1.11** (Degree). In the above graph,

- $f_1$  has degree 3
- $f_2$  has degree 6
- $f_3$  has degree 9

**Q:** Do the edges in a planar drawing need to be straight lines?

**A:** No. (THEOREM (Fary  $\approx$  1950). It doesn't matter).

**Q:** What about other surfaces than the plane?

**A:**

- $\mathbb{R}^3$ ? Too easy.
- Sphere? Interesting.
- Torus?

**PROPOSITION 7.1.12.** *The graphs that can be drawn on a sphere (without crossings) are just the planar graphs. That is,  $G$  can be drawn on a sphere (without crossings) if and only if  $G$  can be drawn on the plane.*

Sketch of *proof*:

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Obviously true. Planar drawing implies spherical drawing.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) Take a hole of a balloon, and stretch it (provided the balloon does not burst). Eventually, it will end up as a flat surface.

## 7.2 Stereographic Projection

Think about a sphere on a flat surface. Shine the light source onto the sphere and a shadow will be casted onto the flat surface.

A 'light source' at  $(0, 0, 1)$  casts a 'shadow' of the graph on the sphere as a graph on the plane.

**Q:** Which graphs can we draw on the torus?

**A:**

- $K_5$  is an example of a graph that can be drawn on a torus, but cannot be drawn on a plane.
- $K_6$ ?
- $K_7$ ?

---

2020-03-25

---

**Q:** Which graphs can be drawn on a mobius strip?

- Non-planar graphs like  $K_5$

**THEOREM 7.2.1** (Handshaking for Faces). *If  $G$  is a planar graph and  $F$  is the set of faces in some drawing of  $G$ , then*

$$\sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) = 2|E(G)|$$

*Proof.*

$$\sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) = \sum_{f \in F} (\text{length of boundary walk of } f)$$

Each edge contributes 1 to the length of exactly two boundary walks of faces (one for each side). Therefore,

$$\sum_{f \in F} (\text{length of boundary walk of } f) = 2|E|$$

□

In a planar drawing of a tree,

- there is exactly one face
- its degree is  $2|E|$

**THEOREM 7.2.2** (Euler's Formula). *If  $F$  is the set of faces in a drawing of a connected planar graph  $G = (V, E)$ , then*

$$|V| - |E| + |F| = 2$$

Suppose we have a spanning tree; that is, we have a tree with  $n$  vertices,  $n - 1$  edges, and 1 face. Now,

$$|V|, |E|, |F| \longrightarrow_{+e} |V|, |E| + 1, |F| + 1$$

*Proof.* Suppose for a contradiction that the theorem is false. Let  $G$  be a counter-example with as few edges as possible. If  $G$  is a tree, then  $|E(G)| = |V(G)| - 1$  and any drawing of  $G$  has exactly one face, so for any drawing,

$$|V| - |E| + |F| = |V| - (|V| - 1) + 1 = 2$$

So,  $G$  is not a counter-example. Otherwise,  $G$  is not a tree. Let  $e$  be an edge of  $G$  that is not a bridge; that is,  $G - e$  is connected. Now, a plane drawing of  $G$  gives rise to a plane drawing of  $G - e$  with exactly one less face. So, the number of faces of (the drawing of)  $G - e$  is  $|F(G)| - 1$ . By the minimality of  $G$ , the graph  $G - e$  satisfies Euler's Formula. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} |V(G - e)| - |E(G - e)| + (|F(G)| - 1) &= 2 \\ \implies |V(G)| - (|E(G)| - 1) + (|F(G)| - 1) &= 2 \\ \implies |V(G)| - |E(G)| + |F(G)| &= 2, \end{aligned}$$

contradicting the choice of  $G$ .

□

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a connected planar graph, and  $F$  be the set of faces in some drawing of  $G$ .

- Handshaking for Faces:  $\sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) = 2|E|$ .
- Euler's Formula:  $|V| - |E| + |F| = 2$ .

**Q:** What are the *connected* planar drawings where:

- every vertex has the same degree ( $d \geq 3$ ), and
- every face has the same degree ( $k \geq 3$ )?

**A:**

- $K_4$ : vertices of degree 3 and faces of degree 3
- cube: vertices of degree 3 and faces of degree 4
- $k$ -cycle: vertices of degree 2 and faces of degree  $k$

## 7.3 Platonic Solids

**DEFINITION 7.3.1.** A graph is called **Platonic** if it can be drawn in the plane so it is connected, every vertex has degree  $d \geq 3$ , and every face has degree  $k \geq 3$ .

Let  $G$  be a Platonic graph. Let  $n = |V(G)|$ ,  $m = |E(G)|$ , and  $\ell = |F|$  (in some plane drawing of  $G$ ).

By Euler's Formula,

$$n - m + \ell = 2$$

By the Handshake Lemma,

$$2m = \sum_{v \in V(G)} \deg(v) = n \times d$$

By Handshaking for Faces,

$$2m = \sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) = \ell \times k$$

Solving for  $n$  and  $\ell$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{2m}{d} \\ \ell &= \frac{2m}{k} \end{aligned}$$

Plugging these into Euler's Formula,

$$2 = \frac{2m}{d} - m + \frac{2m}{k} = m \left( \frac{2}{d} + \frac{2}{k} - 1 \right)$$

We have  $\frac{2}{d} + \frac{2}{k} - 1 = \frac{2}{m} > 0$ . We know  $d, k \geq 3$ . If  $d, k \geq 4$ , then

$$\frac{2}{d} + \frac{2}{k} - 1 \leq 0$$

So, one of  $d, k$  is at most 3. If (say)  $d = 3$ , then

$$\frac{2}{d} + \frac{2}{k} - 1 > 0$$

so,  $\frac{2}{k} > \frac{1}{3} \implies k < 6$ . This only leaves 5 options:

$$(d, k) \in \{(3, 3), (3, 4), (4, 3), (3, 5), (5, 3)\}$$

The only equation that relates  $m, k$ , and  $d$  is:

$$\frac{2}{m} = \frac{2}{k} + \frac{2}{d} - 1$$

If  $(k, d) = (3, 3)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{2}{m} &= \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{3} - 1 \implies m = 6 \\ n &= \frac{2m}{d} = 4, \ell = \frac{2m}{k} = 4 \end{aligned}$$

If  $(k, d) = (3, 3)$ , solving gives  $n = 4, \ell = 4, m = 6$  which is the **Tetrahedron** ( $K_4$ ); self-dual.

If  $(k, d) = (4, 3)$ , solving gives  $n = 8, m = 12, \ell = 6$  which is the **Cube**; dual:  $(k, d) = (3, 4)$ .

If  $(k, d) = (3, 4)$ , solving gives  $n = 6, m = 12, \ell = 8$  which is the **Octahedron**.

If  $(k, d) = (5, 3)$ , solving gives  $n = 20, m = 30, \ell = 12$  which is the **Dodecahedron**; dual:  $(k, d) = (3, 5)$ .

If  $(k, d) = (3, 5)$ , solving gives  $n = 12, m = 30, \ell = 20$  which is the **Icosahedron**.

## 7.4 Non-planar Graphs

In a planar drawing of  $G = (V, E)$  with set of faces  $F$ , and  $G$  connected,

- $|V| - |E| + |F| = 2$
- $\sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) = 2|E|$

We will combine these to prove that various graphs (such as  $K_5$ ) are not planar.

**PROPOSITION 7.4.1.** *In any planar drawing of a graph that is not a tree, every face has a boundary walk that contains (the edges of) a cycle.*

Therefore, the boundary walk of every face has length  $\geq 3$  (unless the graph has  $\leq 1$  edge). It follows that, if  $G$  is a connected plane graph with  $\geq 2$  edges, then in any drawing of  $G$ , each face has degree  $\geq 3$ .

**PROPOSITION 7.4.2.** *In a drawing of a connected plane graph  $G = (V, E)$  with  $|E| \geq 2$ , and set  $F$  of faces, we have*

$$|F| \leq \frac{2}{3}|E|$$

*Proof.* By Handshaking for Faces,

$$\begin{aligned} 2|E| &= \sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) \\ &\geq 3|F| \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality holds because each face has degree  $\geq 3$ . Thus,

$$|F| \leq \frac{2}{3}|E|$$

□

**LEMMA 7.4.3.** *If  $G = (V, E)$  is a connected planar graph with  $|V| \geq 3$ , then*

$$|E| \leq 3|V| - 6$$

*Proof.* We know that  $|V| - |E| + |F| = 2$  and  $|F| \leq \frac{2}{3}|E|$ , where  $F$  is the set of faces in some planar drawing of  $G$ . Combining, yields

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= |V| - |E| + |F| \leq |V| - |E| + \frac{2}{3}|E| \\ \implies 2 &\leq |V| - \frac{1}{3}|E| \\ \implies |E| &\leq 3|V| - 6 \end{aligned}$$

□

**COROLLARY 7.4.4.** *The graph  $K_5$  is not planar.*



*Proof.*  $K_5$  has 5 vertices and 10 edges, but

$$10 \not\leq 3 \cdot 5 - 6 = 9$$

□

As we could see,  $K_5$  has too many edges to be planar. If we removed one edge, we could get a planar graph:

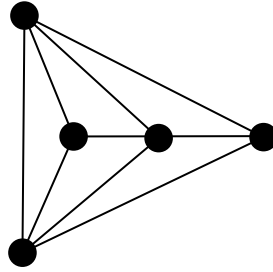


Figure 7.1:  $K_5 - e$

**PROPOSITION 7.4.5.** *If  $G$  is connected graph on  $\geq 3$  vertices with  $|E| \geq 3|V| - 5$ , then  $G$  is non-planar.*

*Proof.* Contrapositive of 7.4.3. □

We can't use this proposition to prove  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

**Recall** The boundary of any face contains a cycle (in a plane drawing of a graph that is not a tree).

**COROLLARY 7.4.6.** *In a plane drawing of a graph  $G = (V, E)$  with  $|V| \geq 3$  and set of faces  $F$ , such that  $G$  has no 3-cycle every face has degree  $\geq 4$ .*

**COROLLARY 7.4.7.** *In a graph  $G$  as above,*

$$|F| \leq \frac{1}{2}|E|$$

*Proof.* Handshaking with Faces gives,

$$2|E| = \sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) \geq 4|F|$$

□

**COROLLARY 7.4.8.** *If  $G = (V, E)$  is planar and connected, has  $\geq 3$  vertices, and has no 3-cycle, then*

$$|E| \leq 2|V| - 4$$

*Proof.*

$$2 = |V| - |E| + |F| \leq |V| - |E| + \frac{1}{2}|E|$$

$$2 \leq |V| - \frac{1}{2}|E| \implies |E| \leq 2|V| - 4$$

□

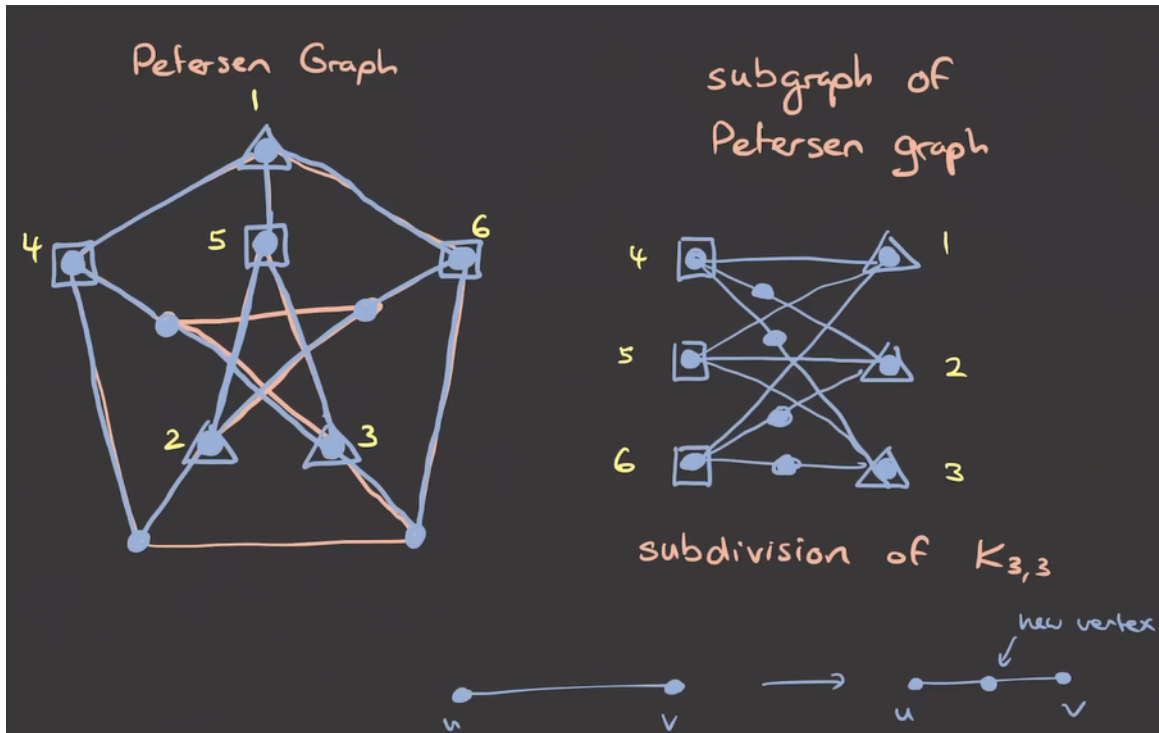
**COROLLARY 7.4.9.**  $K_{3,3}$  is non-planar.

*Proof.*  $K_{3,3}$  has  $|V| = 6$  and  $|E| = 9$ , but

$$9 \not\leq 2 \cdot 6 - 4 = 8$$

□

$K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are non-planar, so are all their super graphs.



**DEFINITION 7.4.10.** If  $uv$  is an edge in a graph  $G$ , the graph  $G'$  is obtained by **subdividing** the edge  $uv$  has vertex set

$$V(G) \cup \{x\}$$

where  $x$  is a new vertex, and edge set

$$(E(G) \setminus \{uv\}) \cup \{ux, vx\}$$

**DEFINITION 7.4.11.** A **subdivision** of a graph  $G$  is any graph obtained from  $G$  by repeatedly ( $\geq 0$ ) subdividing edges.

**PROPOSITION 7.4.12.** If  $H$  is a non-planar graph, then every subdivision of  $H$  is also non-planar.

*Proof.* Any planar drawing of a subdivision of  $H$  would give rise to a plane drawing of  $H$ .

□

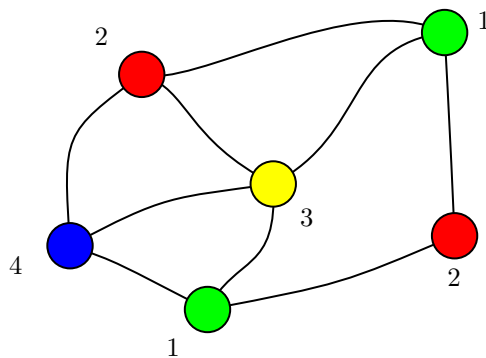


Figure 7.2: 4-colouring of a graph.

**COROLLARY 7.4.13.** *If  $H$  is a non-planar graph, and  $G$  is a graph having a subdivision of  $H$  as a subgraph, then  $G$  is non-planar.*

## 7.5 Kuratowski's Theorem

**THEOREM 7.5.1** (Kuratowski's Theorem). *A graph  $G$  is planar if and only if  $G$  does not contain a subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ .*

*Proof.* Beyond the scope of this course. However, the proof is covered in CO 342. □

**COROLLARY 7.5.2.** *If  $G$  is non-planar, then  $G$  must contain (as a subgraph) a subdivision of either  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ .*

*Proof.* Contrapositive of 7.5.1. □

**THEOREM 7.5.3.** *For any topological surface, there is a finite list of graphs that behave like  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  do for the plane.*

---

2020-03-30

---

## 7.6 Colouring and Planar Graphs

**DEFINITION 7.6.1.** Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ . A  **$k$ -colouring** of  $G$  is an assignment of 'colours' from the set  $\{1, \dots, k\}$  to the vertices of  $G$  so that the adjacent vertices receive different colours.

**DEFINITION 7.6.2.** The **chromatic number**, denoted  $\chi(G)$ , of a graph  $G$  is the minimum  $k$  such that  $G$  has a  $k$ -colouring.

Four-colour problem: Is it true that every planar graph has chromatic number  $\leq 4$ ?

Answer: Yes. Appel and Hacken (1977). The proof was one of the first done with a computer.

**LEMMA 7.6.3.** *Every non-empty planar graph has a vertex of degree  $\leq 5$ .*

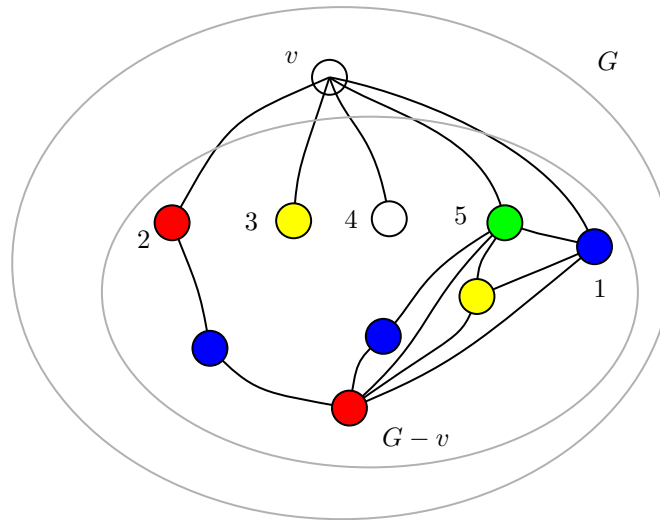
*Proof.* The average degree of a vertex  $v$  of  $G = (V, E)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{v \in V(G)} \deg(v) &= \frac{2|E|}{|V|} && \text{Handshaking Lemma} \\ &\leq \frac{2(3|V| - 6)}{|V|} && \text{by 7.4.3} \\ &= 6 - \frac{12}{|V|} \end{aligned}$$

so some vertex has degree  $\leq 6 - \frac{12}{|V|}$  and therefore  $\leq 5$ . □

**THEOREM 7.6.4** (6-colour Theorem). *Every planar graph is 6-colourable.*

*Proof.* We prove this by induction on the number of vertices. Clearly, every graph with 1 vertex is 6-colourable. Let  $G$  be a planar graph on  $n$  vertices, and suppose inductively that every planar graph on  $n - 1$  vertices is 6-colourable. Let  $v$  be a vertex of  $G$  whose degree is  $\leq 5$ .



Inductively, a planar graph  $G - v$  is 6-colourable. Since  $v$  has at most 5 neighbours, there is a colour in  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  not assigned to any neighbour of  $v$  in  $G$ . Assigning this colour to  $v$  gives a 6-colouring of  $G$ . □

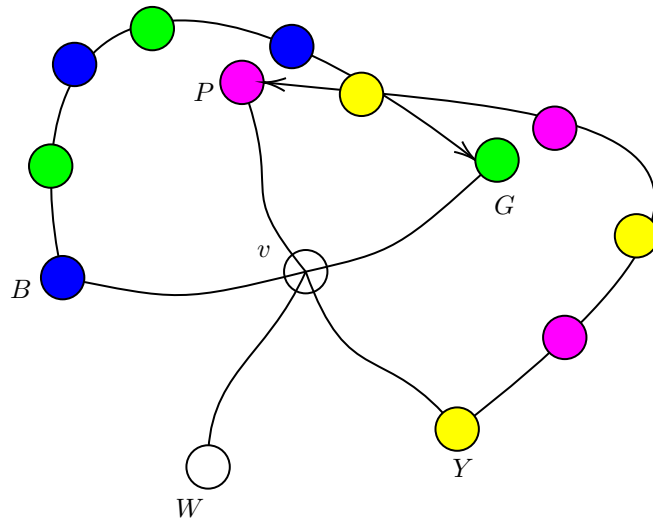
**THEOREM 7.6.5** (Five-colour Theorem). *Every planar graph is 5-colourable.*

*Proof.* Induction on  $|V(G)|$ . Let  $G$  be a graph on  $n \geq 1$  vertices and suppose the theorem holds for every planar graph  $n - 1$  vertices. Let  $v$  be a vertex of degree  $\leq 5$  in  $G$ . Inductively,  $G - v$  has a 5-colouring. If at most 4 colours are assigned to neighbours of  $v$ , then we can extend the colouring of  $G - v$  to a colouring of  $G$ .

by choosing a colour for  $v$  not appearing on neighbours of  $v$ . Otherwise, there are  $\geq 5$  colours appearing on neighbours of  $v$ . Since  $v$  has  $\leq 5$  neighbours, this means every neighbour of  $v$  is assigned a different colour. Let

$$B, P, G, Y, W$$

be the colours occurring on the neighbours of  $v$  as they appear in clockwise order around  $v$ .



Let  $G_{GB}$  be the subgraph of  $G - v$  induced by the green and blue vertices. Define  $G_{PY}$  similarly. By the planarity of  $G$ , either the  $G, B$  neighbours of  $v$  are disconnected in  $G_{GB}$ , or the  $P, Y$  neighbours of  $v$  are disconnected in  $G_{PY}$ . Suppose by symmetry the first case holds.

Let  $u, w$  be the  $B, G$  neighbours of  $v$  so  $u, w$  are disconnected in  $G_{GB}$ . Let  $C$  be the component of  $G_{GB}$  containing  $u$ . Now, form a new 5-colouring of  $G - v$  by switching the colour of every vertex of  $C$  from  $G$  to  $B$  or vice versa. This gives a 5-colouring of  $G - v$  in which both  $u$  and  $w$  are  $G$  (because  $w \notin C$ ). Now, we can colour  $v$  blue to get a 5-colouring of  $G$ .  $\square$

## Chapter 8

# Matchings

---

2020-03-01

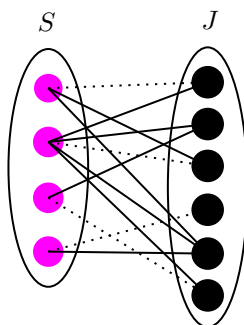
---

### 8.1 Matching

Given a set  $S$  of students and a set  $J$  of co-op jobs, how many positions can we fill given that

- each student in  $S$  has some set of jobs they are willing to do, and
- each job in  $J$  has some set of students that can do it

We can model this situation with a graph (where the set of dotted lines is a possible matching)



the vertices are  $S \cup J$ , and we include an edge between student  $s$  and job  $j$  if and only if they are ‘compatible’.

**DEFINITION 8.1.1.** A *matching* in a graph  $G$  is a set  $M$  of edges of  $G$  so that no two edges in  $M$  have an end in common.

Asking for as many job assignments as possible is equivalent to asking for a largest possible matching in the graph.

**DEFINITION 8.1.2.** Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph, and  $M$  be a matching of  $G$

- A vertex  $v$  of  $G$  is **saturated** by  $M$  if some edge in  $M$  has  $v$  as an end. Otherwise it is **unsaturated** (exposed). **Note:** A matching of size  $k$  has  $2k$  saturated vertices.
- $M$  is a **maximum matching** of  $G$  if  $G$  has no matching larger than  $M$ .
- $M$  is a **maximal matching** if  $M$  is contained in no larger matching of  $G$ . **Note:** Maximum  $\implies$  Maximal, but the converse is not true.

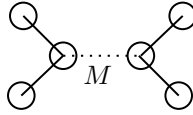


Figure 8.1: Maximal, but not maximum matching.

**DEFINITION 8.1.3.** Let  $P$  be a path in a graph  $G = (V, E)$  and  $M$  be a matching of  $G$ . Let  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  be the edges of  $P$  occurring in order. If  $M \cap E(P)$  is either  $\{e_1, e_3, e_5, \dots\}$  or  $\{e_2, e_4, e_6, \dots\}$  then  $P$  is an  **$M$ -alternating path**. That is, the edges in  $P$  alternate between being matching and non-matching edges.  $P$  is an  **$M$ -augmenting path** if  $M \cap E(P) = \{e_2, e_4, e_6, \dots\}$ , and also both ends of  $P$  are unsaturated vertices.

We can use an  $M$ -augmenting path in a graph  $G$  to make a matching  $M'$  of  $G$  that is larger than  $M$ .

**PROPOSITION 8.1.4.** If  $M$  is a matching in  $G$  and  $P$  is an  $M$ -augmenting path, then  $M$  is not a maximum matching of  $G$ .

*Proof.* Replace  $M$  with

$$(M \setminus (M \cap E(P))) \cup (E(P) \setminus M)$$

to get a larger matching than  $M$ . □

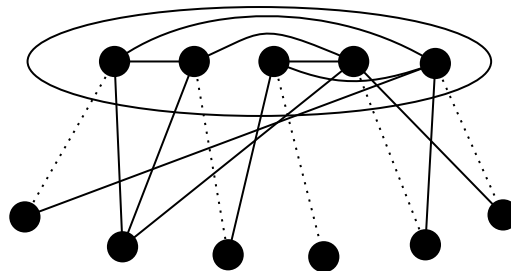


Figure 8.2: Vertex Cover

Clearly, it is not possible to have a matching of size 6 here. The matching above covers all edges of the graph.

**DEFINITION 8.1.5.** A (vertex) **cover** of a graph  $G$  is a set  $C \subseteq V(G)$  such that every edge of  $G$  has at least one end in  $C$ .

**PROPOSITION 8.1.6.** If  $C$  is a cover of  $G$  and  $M$  is a matching of  $G$ , then

$$|M| \leq |C|$$

*Proof.* We use the pigeonhole principle. Each edge in  $M$  has an end in  $C$  by the definition of a cover. Since  $M$  is a matching, these ends are distinct. So

$$|C| \geq |M|$$

□

**PROPOSITION 8.1.7.** *If  $C$  is a cover of  $G$  and  $M$  is a matching of  $G$  with  $|M| = |C|$ , then  $M$  is a maximum matching of  $G$ , and  $C$  is a minimum (smallest possible) cover of  $G$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $M_0$  be a maximum matching, and  $C_0$  be a minimum cover. Then,

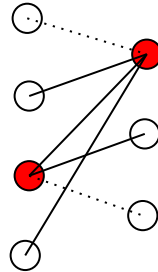
$$\begin{aligned} |M| &\leq |M_0| && M_0 \text{ is a maximum matching} \\ &\leq |C_0| && \text{by 8.1.6} \\ &\leq |C| && C_0 \text{ is a minimum cover} \\ &= |M| && \text{by assumption} \end{aligned} \tag{8.1}$$

Equality holds throughout, so  $|M| = |M_0|$ , which means that  $M$  is a maximum matching and  $|C| = |C_0|$  means that  $C$  is a minimum cover. □

†Note: Usually,  $\nu(G)$  = size of a maximum matching of  $G$ , and  $\tau(G)$  = size of a minimum cover of  $G$ .

8.1.6 states that, for any  $G$ ,

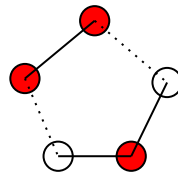
$$|\text{maximum matching of } G| \leq |\text{minimum cover of } G|$$



Deleting the red vertices  $\implies |C| = 2$ .

$$|\text{maximum matching of } G| = 2 = |\text{minimum cover of } G|$$

However, this is not always true as seen below.



$$|\text{maximum matching of } G| = 2 \neq 3 = |\text{minimum cover of } G|$$



## Chapter 9

# Tutorials

### 9.1 Tutorial 1

**Problem 1.** Give a combinatorial proof that the number of subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  with even cardinality is the same as the number with odd cardinality.

**Solution.**

Let  $X$  denote any subset of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ . The corresponding set  $Y$  will be:

$$Y = \begin{cases} X \cup \{1\}, & \text{if } 1 \notin X \\ X \setminus \{1\}, & \text{if } 1 \in X \end{cases}$$

**Problem 2.** Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Give a combinatorial proof of the identity

$$\sum_{i=0}^n i \binom{n}{i} = n2^{n-1}.$$

**Solution.**

Suppose we have a group of  $n$  people.

*RHS:* Choose a committee of size  $i$ , then choose one of the  $i$  committee members to be a leader. There are  $\binom{n}{i}$  ways to pick the members of the committee and  $i$  ways to choose the leader, which yields  $\sum_{i=0}^n i \binom{n}{i}$ .

*LHS:* Pick a leader, then from the remaining  $(n-1)$  people we choose them to either be in or out of the committee. There are  $n$  ways to pick the leader and  $2^{n-1}$  ways to pick the remaining committee members.

Thus, since we are counting the same object twice in two different ways, we have that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n i \binom{n}{i} = n2^{n-1}.$$

**Problem 3.** For any integers  $n, k, r$  where  $n \geq k \geq r \geq 0$ , give a combinatorial proof of the following identity.

$$\binom{n}{k} \binom{k}{r} = \binom{n}{r} \binom{n-r}{k-r}.$$

**Solution.**

Suppose we have a group of  $n$  people, with a  $k$ -person committee and a  $r$ -person subcommittee.

*RHS:* Choose the committee in  $\binom{n}{k}$  ways, then choose the subcommittee from the committee in  $\binom{k}{r}$  ways, which yields  $\binom{n}{k}\binom{k}{r}$ .

*LHS:* Choose the  $r$  subcommittee members in  $\binom{n}{r}$  ways, then fill in the remaining  $(k-r)$  committee members from the remaining  $(n-r)$  people, which yields  $\binom{n}{r}\binom{n-r}{k-r}$ .

Thus, since we are counting the same object twice in two different ways, we have that

$$\binom{n}{k}\binom{k}{r} = \binom{n}{r}\binom{n-r}{k-r}.$$

**Problem 4.** Let  $n \geq 5$  be an integer. Give a combinatorial proof of the following identity

$$\sum_{k=5}^n \binom{k-1}{4} = \sum_{m=3}^{n-2} \binom{m-1}{2} \binom{n-m}{2}.$$

(Hint: Both sides are equal to  $\binom{n}{5}$ .)

**Solution.**

Too hard for my poor soul.

## 9.2 Tutorial 2

**Problem 1.** Use the negative binomial theorem and substitutions to give a formula for the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $(1-3x)^{-1} + 2(1-2x)^{-2}$ .

**Solution.** Recall:

**THEOREM 9.2.1** (Negative Binomial Theorem). *Let  $m, k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ , then*

$$(1-x)^{-k} = \sum_{m \geq 0} \binom{m+k-1}{k-1} x^m$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1-3x)^{-1} &= \sum_{m \geq 0} \binom{m+1-1}{1-1} (3x)^m = \sum_{m \geq 0} 3^m x^m \\ \implies [x^n](1-3x)^{-1} &= 3^n \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2(1-2x)^{-2} &= 2 \sum_{m \geq 0} \binom{m+2-1}{2-1} (2x)^m = 2 \sum_{m \geq 0} (m+1) 2^m x^m \\ \implies [x^n] 2(1-2x)^{-2} &= 2(n+1)2^n = (n+1)2^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

Combining,

$$[x^n] [(1-3x)^{-1} + 2(1-2x)^{-2}] = 3^n + (n+1)2^{n+1}$$

**Problem 2.** Let  $F(x) = x + x^2 + \dots$  and let  $G(x) = 1 + 3x + 2x^2$ . Compute the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $G(F(x))$ .

**Solution.**

$$G(F(x)) = 1 + 3(x + x^2 + \cdots) + 2(x + x^2 + \cdots)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3(x + x^2 + \cdots) &= 3x(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots) \\ &= \frac{3x}{1-x} \\ &= 3x \sum_{m \geq 0} x^m \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2(x + x^2 + \cdots)^2 &= 2[x(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots)]^2 \\ &= 2\left(\frac{x}{1-x}\right)^2 \\ &= 2x^2(1-x)^{-2} \\ &= 2x^2 \sum_{m \geq 0} \binom{m+2-1}{2-1} x^m \\ &= 2x^2 \sum_{m \geq 0} (m+1)x^m \end{aligned}$$

Computing coefficients,

$$[x^n]1 = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \geq 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} [x^n]3(x + x^2 + \cdots) &= [x^n]3x \sum_{m \geq 0} x^m \\ &= [x^{n-1}]3 \sum_{m \geq 0} x^m \\ &= \begin{cases} 3, & \text{if } n \geq 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} [x^n]2(x + x^2 + \cdots)^2 &= [x^n]2x^2 \sum_{m \geq 0} (m+1)x^m \\ &= [x^{n-2}]2 \sum_{m \geq 0} (m+1)x^m \\ &= \begin{cases} 2n-2, & \text{if } n \geq 2 \\ 0, & \text{if } n \in \{0, 1\} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$[x^n]G(F(x)) = \begin{cases} 2n+1, & \text{if } n \geq 2 \\ 3, & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases}$$

**Problem 3.** Show that if  $F(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots$ . Then

$$F(x)(1-x) = a_0 + (a_1 - a_0)x + (a_2 - a_1)x^2 + \cdots$$

and

$$F(x)(1-x)^{-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n,$$

where  $c_n = a_0 + a_1 + \cdots + a_n$ .

**Solution.**

*Part 1.*

$$\begin{aligned} F(x)(1-x) &= (a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots)(1-x) \\ &= a_0 + (a_1 - a_0)x + (a_2 - a_1)x^2 - a_2x^3 - a_3x^4 + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

as required.

*Part 2.*

We know that  $(1-x)^{-1} = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots$ , thus

$$\begin{aligned} F(x)(1-x)^{-1} &= F(x) + xF(x) + x^2F(x) + \cdots \\ &= \sum_{i \geq 0} x^i F(x) \\ &= \sum_{i \geq 0} [x^{n-i}]F(x) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n a_{n-i} \text{ for } 0 \leq k = n-i \leq n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \end{aligned}$$

where

$$[x^{n-i}]F(x) = \begin{cases} a_{n-i}, & \text{if } i \leq n \\ 0, & \text{if } i > n \end{cases}$$

**Problem 4.** Show that for  $k \geq 1$  and  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i \binom{k}{i} \binom{n-i+k-1}{k-1} = 0,$$

where we interpret  $\binom{j}{i} = 0$  when  $j < i$ . Hint: Look at  $1 = (1-x)^k(1-x)^{-k}$  and compute the coefficient of  $x^n$  in both sides.

**Solution.**

$$[x^n]1 = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \geq 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$(1-x)^{-k}(1-x)^k = \sum_{j \geq 0} \sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i \binom{k}{i} \binom{j+k-1}{k-1} x^{j+i} \quad \text{Negative Bin. and Bin. Theorem}$$

Let  $j+i = n \iff j = n-i$  to compute  $[x^n](1-x)^{-k}(1-x)^k$ , and we get

$$\sum_{i=0}^k (-1)^i \binom{k}{i} \binom{n-i+k-1}{k-1} = 0$$

for  $k \geq 1$  and  $n \geq 1$  as desired.

### 9.3 Tutorial 3

**Problem 1.** Consider the set of non-negative integers  $\mathbb{N}_0$ , but with a non-standard weight function

$$w(a) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2}a + 1, & \text{if } a \text{ is even,} \\ 2(a + 1), & \text{if } a \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Find the generating series for  $\mathbb{N}_0$  with respect to this weight function and express it as a simplified rational expression.

**Solution.**

$$\mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N}_{\text{even}} \cup \mathbb{N}_{\text{odd}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_{\mathbb{N}_0}(x) &= \Phi_{\mathbb{N}_{\text{even}}}(x) + \Phi_{\mathbb{N}_{\text{odd}}}(x) && \text{Sum Lemma} \\ &= \sum_{a \text{ even}} x^{3/2a+1} + \sum_{a \text{ odd}} x^{2(a+1)} \\ &= x \sum_{a \text{ even}} x^{3/2a} + x^2 \sum_{a \text{ odd}} x^{2a} \\ &= x \sum_{i \geq 0} (x^{3/2})^{2i} + x^2 \sum_{i \geq 0} (x^2)^{2i+1} \\ &= x \sum_{i \geq 0} (x^3)^i + x^4 \sum_{i \geq 0} (x^4)^i \\ &= \frac{x}{1-x^3} + \frac{x^4}{1-x^4} \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 2.** Let  $m, n$  be positive integers and  $\alpha, \beta$  positive real numbers. Find the generating series for the cartesian product

$$\{1, \dots, m\} \times \{1, \dots, n\}$$

with respect to the weight function

$$w(a, b) = \alpha a + \beta b$$

and express it as a simplified rational expression.

**Solution.**

**THEOREM 9.3.1** (Partial Geometric Series).

$$\sum_{i=0}^k x^i = \frac{1-x^{k+1}}{1-x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_{A \times B}(x) &= \sum_{(a,b) \in A \times B} x^{\alpha a + \beta b} \\ &= \sum_{a \in A} x^{\alpha a} \sum_{b \in B} x^{\beta b} && \text{Product Lemma} \\ &= x^{\alpha+\beta} \sum_{i=1}^m (x^a)^i \sum_{j=1}^n (x^b)^j \\ &= x^{\alpha+\beta} \left( \frac{x^a(1-x^{am})}{1-x^a} \right) \left( \frac{x^b(1-x^{bm})}{1-x^b} \right) && \text{Partial Geometric Series} \\ &= x^{\alpha+\beta+a+b} \frac{(1-x^{am})(1-x^{bm})}{(1-x^a)(1-x^b)} \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 3.** Let  $a, b, n, k$  be positive integers with  $a \leq b$  and  $k \leq n$ . How many compositions of  $n$  with  $k$  parts are there in which all parts are elements of  $\{a, \dots, b\}$ ? Expressing the result as a finite sum  $\sum_{i=0}^k s_i$  is sufficient.

*Rough.*

Start with a small example  $a = 2, b = 4, n = 9, k = 3$ .

Let  $C = \{\text{compositions with 3 parts where each part is 2, 3, or 4}\}$ . We want  $[x^9]\Phi_C(x)$ .

Let  $P = \{\text{parts of value 2, 3, or 4}\}$ .  $C = P \times P \times P$  (3 parts). Thus,  $\Phi_C(x) = (\Phi_P(x))^3$ .

$$(\Phi_P(x))^3 = \left( \sum_{i=2}^4 x^i \right)^3$$

We want  $[x^9](x^2 + x^3 + x^4)^3$ .

**Solution.**

So, in general we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_C(x) &= (\Phi_P(x))^k \\ &= \left( \sum_{i=a}^b x^i \right)^k \end{aligned}$$

We want  $[x^n] \left( \sum_{i=a}^b x^i \right)^k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} [x^n] \left( \sum_{i=a}^b x^i \right)^k &= [x^n] (x^a + \dots + x^b)^k \\ &= [x^n] x^{ak} (1 + \dots + x^{b-a})^k \\ &= [x^{n-ak}] \left( \frac{1 - x^{b-a+1}}{1 - x} \right)^k \\ &= [x^{n-ak}] (1 + (-x^{b-a+1}))^k (1 - x)^{-k} \\ &= [x^{n-ak}] \sum_{i \geq 0} \binom{k}{i} (-1)^i x^{i(b-a+1)} \sum_{j \geq 0} \binom{j+k-1}{k-1} x^j \\ &= [x^{n-ak}] \sum_{i \geq 0} \sum_{j \geq 0} \binom{k}{i} \binom{j+k-1}{k-1} (-1)^i x^{i(b-a+1)+j} \end{aligned}$$

$$i(b-a+1) + j = n - ak$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n-ak}{b-a+1} \rfloor} \binom{k}{i} \binom{n-ak-i(b-a+1)+k-1}{k-1} (-1)^i$$

## 9.4 Tutorial 4

**Problem 1.** Let  $S$  denote the set of strings of the form  $\{1\}^* \{0\}^* \{1\}^* \{0\}^*$ . Find the generating function for  $\Phi_S(x)$ , where the weight of a string is given by its length.

**Solution.**

$$\{1\}^* (\{0\}\{0\}^*\{1\}\{1\}^*) \{0\}^* \cup \{1\}^*\{0\}^*$$

**Problem 2.** Let  $S = \{00, 111\}^*$ . Find a formula for  $\Phi_S(x)$ .

**Solution.**

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_S(x) &= \Phi_{\{00, 111\}^*} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \Phi_{\{00, 111\}}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - (x^2 + x^3)} \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 3.** Let  $S$  be  $\{00, 111\}^*$  and let  $S_n$  denote the set of strings of length  $n$  in  $S$ . Give a combinatorial proof that  $|S_n| = |S_{n-2}| + |S_{n-3}|$  for  $n \geq 3$ .

Look at  $n = 0, \dots, 6$ .

$$n = 2 : |S_2| = 1 \rightarrow 00$$

$$n = 3 : |S_3| = 1 \rightarrow 111$$

$$n = 4 : |S_4| = 1 \rightarrow 0000$$

$$n = 5 : |S_5| = 2 \rightarrow 00111, 11100$$

$$n = 6 : |S_6| = 2 \rightarrow 111111, 000000$$

**Solution.**

Let  $s \in S_n$ ,  $n \geq 3$ . What could  $s$  start with?

Case 1:  $00t$ ,  $t \in S_{n-2}$

Case 2:  $111t$ ,  $t \in S_{n-3}$

$f : S_n \rightarrow S_{n-2} \cup S_{n-3}$ ,  $\forall s \in S_n$ ,  $f(s) = t$  where

$$s = \begin{cases} 00t, & \text{if } s \text{ starts with } 00 \\ 111t, & \text{if } s \text{ starts with } 111 \end{cases}$$

$$g : S_{n-2} \cup S_{n-3} \rightarrow S_n$$

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 00t, & t \in S_{n-2} \\ 111t, & t \in S_{n-3} \end{cases}$$

Explain how  $f(g(t)) = t$  and  $g(f(s)) = s$ .

**Problem 4.** Explain why  $(\{1\}^*\{0\}^*)$  is ambiguous.

**Solution.**

Ambiguous means there are multiple ways to create a string. So, taking  $\varepsilon$  works since,

$$\begin{aligned} (\{1\}^0\{0\}^0)^x &= (\varepsilon)^x \\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

## 9.5 Tutorial 5

**Problem 1.** Let  $S$  denote the set of binary strings not containing the string 101 as a substring. Find an unambiguous expression for  $S$ , and use it to give a rational expression for  $\Phi_S(x)$ , weighted by length.

**Solution.**

$$\{0\}^* (\{1\}\{1\}^* \{0\}\{0\}^*)^* \{1\}^*$$

$$S = \{0\}^* (\{1\}\{1\}^* \{00\}\{0\}^*)^* \{1\}^* \{\varepsilon, 10\}$$

$$T = \{\text{binary strings containing exactly one copy of 101 as a suffix}\}$$

$$\{\varepsilon\} \cup S\{0, 1\} = S \cup T$$

$$S\{101\} = T \cup T\{01\}$$

$$1 + \Phi_S(x)2x = \Phi_S(x) + \Phi_T(x)$$

$$\Phi_S(x)x^3 = \Phi_T(x) + \Phi_T(x)x^2$$

$$\implies 1 + \Phi_S(x)2x - \Phi_S(x) = \Phi_T(x)$$

substituting,

$$\Phi_S(x)x^3 = 1 + \Phi_S(x)2x - \Phi_S(x) + x^2 + \Phi_S(x)2x^3 - \Phi_S(x)x^2$$

$$\implies \Phi_S(x)x^3 = 1 + \Phi_S(x)2x - \Phi_S(x) + \Phi_S(x)2x^3 - \Phi_S(x)x^2 + x^2$$

$$\implies \Phi_S(x)x^3 - \Phi_S(x)2x + \Phi_S(x) - \Phi_S(x)2x^3 + \Phi_S(x)x^2 = 1 + x^2$$

$$\implies -\Phi_S(x)x^3 - \Phi_S(x)2x + \Phi_S(x) + \Phi_S(x)x^2 = 1 + x^2$$

$$\implies \Phi_S(x)(-x^3 - 2x + 1 + x^2) = 1 + x^2$$

$$\implies \Phi_S(x) = \frac{1 + x^2}{-x^3 + x^2 - 2x + 1}$$

where the algebra has been verified with WolframAlpha.

**Problem 2.** Let  $S$  be the set of binary strings with an odd number of blocks. Find an unambiguous recursive decomposition for  $S$ , and use it to find a rational expression for  $\Phi_S(x)$ , weighted by length.

$$X = \{\text{binary strings with odd number of blocks, beginning with 1}\}$$

$$Y = \{\text{binary strings with odd number of blocks, beginning with 0}\}$$

$$S \cup T = T\{0, 1\} \cup S\{0, 1\} \cup \{\varepsilon\}$$

$$S = X \cup Y$$

$$X = \{1\}\{1\}^* (\{0\}\{0\}^* X \cup \{\varepsilon\}) \rightarrow \Phi_X(x) = \frac{x}{1-x} \left( \frac{x}{1-x} \Phi_X(x) + 1 \right)$$

$$Y = \{0\}\{0\}^* (\{1\}\{1\}^* Y \cup \{\varepsilon\})$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \implies \Phi_X(x) &= \frac{\frac{x}{1-x}}{1 - \frac{x^2}{(1-x)^2}} \\ &= \frac{x(1-x)}{(1-x)^2 - x^2} \\ &= \frac{x - x^2}{1 - 2x} \end{aligned}$$



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

**Problem 3.** Let  $k$  and  $\ell$  be non negative, and  $S$  be the set of binary strings in which no block of zeros has length greater than  $k$  and no blocks of ones has length greater than  $\ell$ . Find an unambiguous recursive decomposition for  $S$ , and use it to find a rational expression for  $\Phi_S(x)$ , weighted by length.

$$T = \{0, 00, \dots, 0^k\}, U = \{1, 11, \dots, 1^\ell\}$$

$$(T \cup \{\varepsilon\})(UT)^*(U \cup \{\varepsilon\})$$

$$\Phi_T(x) = \frac{x(1 - x^k)}{1 - x}$$

$$\Phi_U(x) = \frac{x(1 - x^\ell)}{1 - x}$$

## 9.6 Tutorial 6

**Problem 1.** Let  $n \geq 0$ . Use partial fractions to compute the coefficient of  $x^n$  in

$$\frac{x(x-1)}{x^3 + 6x^2 + 11x + 6}$$

**Solution.**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x(x-1)}{x^3 + 6x^2 + 11x + 6} &= \frac{x^2 - x}{(x+1)(x+2)(x+3)} \\ &= \frac{A}{x+1} + \frac{B}{x+2} + \frac{C}{x+3} \\ &= A(x+2)(x+3) + B(x+1)(x+3) + C(x+1)(x+2) \\ &= A(x^2 + 5x + 6) + B(x^2 + 4x + 3) + C(x^2 + 3x + 2) \\ &= (6A + 3B + 2C) + (5A + 4B + 3C)x + (A + B + C)x^2 \end{aligned}$$

Equating coefficients, gives three equations and three unknowns:

$$6A + 3B + 2C = 0$$

$$5A + 4B + 3C = -1$$

$$A + B + C = 1$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 6 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ 5 & 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array} \right] \rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -6 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 6 \end{array} \right]$$

Thus, we have  $A = 1$ ,  $B = -6$ ,  $C = 6$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{x+1} + \frac{-6}{x+2} + \frac{6}{x+3} &= (-1)^n - 6[x^n] \frac{1}{x+2} + 6[x^n] \frac{1}{x+3} \\ &= (-1)^n - 6(-2)^n + 6(-3)^n \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 2.** Solve the following recurrences:

(a)  $a_n - 3a_{n-1} + 3a_{n-2} - a_{n-3} = 0$  for  $n \geq 3$  with initial conditions  $a_0 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = 1$  and  $a_2 = 2$ .

(b)  $a_n - za_{n-2} = 0$  for  $n \geq 2$ ,  $z \in \mathbb{R}$ , with initial conditions  $a_0 = 1$  and  $a_1 = 2z$ .

**Solution.**

(a) The polynomial is  $x^3 - 3x^2 + 3x - 1 = 0 \implies (x - 1)^3 = 0$ . The multiplicity is 3 so the degree is at most 2.  $a_n = 1^n(An^2 + Bn + C)$

$$a_0 = C = 0$$

$$a_1 = A + B + C = 1$$

$$a_2 = 4A + 2B + C = 2$$

$A = 0$ ,  $B = 1$ ,  $C = 0$ . Substituting gives,

$$a_n = n$$

(b) The polynomial is  $x^2 - z = 0 \implies (x + \sqrt{z})(x - \sqrt{z}) = 0$ . The roots are  $x = \sqrt{z}$  and  $x = -\sqrt{z}$  both with multiplicity of 1, so the degree is at most 0.  $a_n = (\sqrt{z})^n A + (-\sqrt{z})^n B$

$$a_0 = A + B = 1$$

$$a_1 = \sqrt{z}A - \sqrt{z}B = 2z$$

Solving, gives  $A = 1/2 + \sqrt{z}$  and  $B = 1/2 - \sqrt{z}$ . Substituting gives,

$$a_n = \sqrt{z} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{z} \right) + (-\sqrt{z}) \left( \frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{z} \right)$$

**Problem 3.** Find (linear, homogenous) recurrence equations and initial conditions for

(a)  $a_n = (n + 1)2^n + (n - 1)(-2)^n$

(b)  $a_n = 1 + z^n$  where  $z \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$

**Solution.**

(a) Roots: 2 and  $-2$ ,  $(n + 1)$  and  $(n - 1)$  are both linear  $\rightarrow$  multiplicity of 2 for both roots. Thus,  $h(x) = (x - 2)^2(x + 2)^2 = x^4 - 8x^2 + 16$ . Therefore, the recurrence relation is:

$$a_n - 0a_{n-1} - 8a_{n-2} + 0a_{n-3} + 16a_{n-4} = 0$$

(b) Roots: 1 and  $z$ , both have multiplicity of 1. Thus,  $h(x) = (x - 1)(x - z) = x^2 - (1 + z)x + z$ . Therefore, the recurrence relation is:

$$a_n - (1 + z)a_{n-1} + za_{n-2} = 0$$

## 9.7 Tutorial 6.5

**Problem 1.** Determine the following coefficient.  $[x^{2n}](x/(1 - x))^n$ .

**Solution.**

**Problem 2.** Let  $S$  be the class of binary strings in which every block has length of at most 6, every block of zeros has even length, and every block of ones has odd length. Find an unambiguous expression for  $S$ , and use it to compute  $\Phi_S(x)$ .

**Solution.**

Decomposition strategy (from course notes):

$$\{0\}^* (\{1\}\{1\}^*\{0\}\{0^*\})^* \{1\}^*$$

$$B_0 = \{\varepsilon, 00, 0000, 000000\}$$

$$B_1 = \{\varepsilon, 1, 111, 11111\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S &= B_0(B_1 \setminus \varepsilon \ B_0 \setminus \varepsilon)^* B_1 \\ \Phi_{B_0}(x) &= 1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^6 \\ \Phi_{B_1}(x) &= 1 + x + x^3 + x^5 \\ \Phi_S(x) &= \frac{\Phi_{B_0}(x)\Phi_{B_1}(x)}{1 - (x^2 + x^4 + x^6)(x + x^3 + x^5)} \end{aligned}$$

**Problem 3.** For each  $n$ , let  $a_n$  denote the number of compositions of  $n$  where every part is even, and the number of parts is a multiple of 3. Find an explicit formula for  $a_n$ .

**Solution.**

Let  $A = \{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{3m}) : \alpha_i \in \mathbb{N}_{\text{even}}, m \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \bigcup_{m \geq 0} (\mathbb{N}_{\text{even}})^{3m}(x) \\ \Phi_{\mathbb{N}_{\text{even}}} &= x^2 + x^4 + \dots = \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi_A(x) &= \sum_{m \geq 0} \Phi_{\mathbb{N}_{\text{even}}^{3m}}(x) && \text{by Sum Lemma} \\ &= \sum_{m \geq 0} \Phi_{\mathbb{N}_{\text{even}}}(x)^{3m} && \text{by Product Lemma} \\ &= \sum_{m \geq 0} \left( \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2} \right)^{3m} \\ &= \sum_{m \geq 0} \left( \frac{x^6}{(1 - x^2)^3} \right)^m \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - \frac{x^6}{(1 - x^2)^3}} \\ &= \frac{(1 - x^2)^3}{(1 - x^2)^3 - x^6} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$a_n = [x^n] \frac{(1 - x^2)^3}{(1 - x^2)^3 - x^6}$$

**Problem 4.** Solve the linear recurrence relation defined by  $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$ , with initial conditions  $a_0 = 2$  and  $a_1 = 5$ .

**Solution.**

**Textbook Problem.**

$S_k = \{(A, B) : A, B \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}, |A| = |B| = m, |A \cap B| = k\}$   
 $T_k = \{(X, Y, Z) : X, Y, Z \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}, |X| = k, |Y| = |Z| = m - k, X \cap Y = X \cap Z = Y \cap Z = \emptyset\}$   
 Define a bijection  $f : S_k \rightarrow T_k$  and its inverse.

$$f(A, B) = (A \cap B, A \setminus (A \cap B), B \setminus (A \cap B))$$

## 9.8 Tutorial 7

**Problem 1.** Determine the number of vertices and edges of each of the following graphs.

$G(n, k)$  for each  $n$  and  $k$ . For integers  $n$  and  $k$ , let  $G(n, k)$  be the graph whose vertices are the  $k$ -element subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , where two vertices  $A$  and  $B$  are adjacent if  $|A \cap B| \leq 2$ .

(a) The graph  $G_1$  whose vertices are the 4-element subsets of  $\{1, \dots, 8\}$ , where two vertices  $A$  and  $B$  are adjacent if and only if  $|A \cap B| \leq 2$ .

(b) The graph  $G_2$  whose vertices are the binary strings of length  $n$ , where two vertices are adjacent if and only if they differ in exactly two positions.

**Solution.** The number of vertices are  $2^n$ . Let  $s \in V(G_2)$ . How many other elements is  $s$  adjacent to?

$$\deg(s) = \binom{n}{2}$$

Handshake Lemma:

$$2|E| = \sum_{s \in V(G)} \deg(s) = 2^n \binom{n}{2}$$

Thus,

$$|E| = 2^{n-1} \binom{n}{2}$$

(c) The graph  $G_3$  with vertex set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \times \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , where two vertices  $(x, y)$  and  $(x', y')$  are adjacent if and only if  $(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2 \leq 2$ .

**Solution.** The number of vertices are  $|V(G_3)| = 5 \times 5 = 25$ . Let  $(x, y) \in V(G_3)$ . What vertices are adjacent to  $(x, y)$ ?

$$(x+1, y), (x-1, y), (x+1, y-1), (x-1, y-1), (x, y-1), (x+1, y+1), (x-1, y+1), (x, y+1)$$

If  $2 \leq x, y \leq 4$ ,

$$\deg((x, y)) = 8$$

If  $x \in \{1, 5\}, 2 \leq y \leq 5$ ,

$$\deg((x, y)) = 5$$

If  $x, y \in \{1, 5\}$ ,

$$\deg((x, y)) = 3$$

Using the Handshake Lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} 2|E| &= \sum_{v \in V(G_3)} \deg(v) \\ &= 8(3 \times 3) + 5(2 \times 3 \times 2) + 3(2 \times 2) \\ &= 72 + 60 + 12 \\ &= 144 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$|E| = 72$$

**Problem 2.** Which of the graphs in the previous question are connected? Give a proof either way.

(b) **Solution.**  $n = 4$ ,  $\binom{n}{2} = \binom{4}{2} = 6$ . We know 1010 is adjacent to 1001, 0011, 0000, 1100, 0110, 1111. Note that the parity is the same in all.

Connected:  $\forall x, y \in V(G)$ , there exists a path between  $x$  and  $y$  in  $G$ .

Consider the path between 0001 and 1101.

Changing two bits will always leave the parity the same (since we either add 2 to the sum, subtract 2, or add 1 and subtract 1). Therefore, there is no path between a vertex of even parity and a vertex with odd parity. Thus,  $G_2$  is not connected.

(c) **Solution.** Claim:  $G_3$  is connected. Suppose for a contradiction that  $G_3$  is not connected. Then, there exists a  $(x, y), (x', y') \in V(G_3)$  such that there is not path between them. WLOG,  $x \leq x'$  and  $y \leq y'$  (invert one of the following sequences in each case we have  $>$ )

$$x, x+1, \dots, x' \quad ; \quad y, y+1, \dots, y'$$

$$(x, y) \sim (x+1, y) \sim \dots \sim (x', y) \sim (x', y+1) \sim (x', y')$$

Contradiction.

**Problem 3.** Prove that every graph on at least two vertices has two vertices of the same degree.

**Solution.** Suppose for a contradiction that  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$  have different degrees. Say  $d_i$  is the degree of  $v_i$  for each  $i \in [1, k]$ . WLOG,

$$d_1 < d_2 < \dots < d_k$$

You can assume that  $d_1 \geq 1$ .

$$d_1 \geq 1 \implies d_i \geq i \quad \forall i$$

$$d_k \geq k \implies v_k \text{ is adjacent to } k \text{ vertices, but there are only } k-1 \text{ available}$$

contradiction. If  $d_1 = 0$ , then it doesn't affect the degrees of other vertices so we can remove it from  $G$ , and just look at

$$v_2, \dots, v_k$$