Discrete Mathematics

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Lecture 1: Introduction

Mon 22 Feb

1 Counting

1.1 Finite sets

Let A be a finite set. We denote by |A| the cardinality of A.

Definition 1 (First Numbers)

We denote by [n] the set of n first natural numbers.

1.2 Bijections

Theorème 1

If there exists a bijection between finite sets A and B then |A| = |B|.

1.3 Operations with finite sets

- union
- intersection
- product
- exponentiation
- quotient

Definition 2 (Cartesion product)

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A, b \in B\}$$

Theorème 2

$$|A \times B| = |A||B|$$

Definition 3 (Disjoint union)

Define

$$A \sqcup B = A \times \{0\} \cup B \times \{1\}$$

Theorème 3

$$|A \sqcup B| = |A| + |B|$$

Definition 4 (Exponential object)

$$A^B = \{f | f \text{ is a function from } A \text{ to } B \}$$

Theorème 4

$$|A^B| = |A|^{|B|}$$

Definition 5 (Binomial coefficient)

A binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$ is the number of ways in which one can choose k objects out of n distinct objects assuming order doesn't matter.

Proposition 5

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$$

Proposition 6

The following identities hold:

1

$$\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} = \binom{n+1}{k+1}$$

2. $\binom{n}{k}$ is the k-th element in the n-th line of Pascal's triangle.

Preuve

Each subset of [n+1] either contains n+1 or not.

Number of (k+1)-element subsets containing n+1 is $\binom{n}{k}$

Number of (k+1)-element subsets not containing n+1 is $\binom{n}{k+1}$

Proposition 7

The number of subsets of an n-element set is 2^n , since we have

$$2^n = \sum \binom{n}{i}$$

Proposition 8

The number of subsets of even cardinality is the same as even cardinality: 2^{n-1}

Preuve

Consider

$$\phi:2^{[n]}\to 2^{[n]}$$

defined by

$$\phi(A) = A\Delta \left\{1\right\} = \begin{cases} A \setminus \left\{1\right\}, & \text{if } 1 \in A \\ A \cup \left\{1\right\}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The cardinality of subsets A and $\phi(A)$ always have different parity. Since $\phi \circ \phi = \text{Id}$ we deduce that ϕ is a bijection between the set of odd and even subsets is the same.

Theorème 9

$$(1+x)^n = \sum \binom{n}{i} x^i$$

Preuve

In lecture notes.

Proposition 10

Assume we have k identical objects and n different persons. Then ne number of ways in which one can distribute this k objects among the n persons equals

$$\binom{n+k-1}{n-1} = \binom{n+k-1}{k}$$

Equivalently, it is the number of solutions of the equation $x_1 + ... + x_n = k$

Preuve

Let A be the set of all solutions of the equation. Let B be the set of all subsets of cardinality n-1 in k+n-1.

we construct a bijection $\psi: \mathcal{A} \to \mathcal{B}$ in the following way

$$A = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto B = \{x_1 + 1, x_1 + x_2 + 2 \dots\}$$

It suffices to show that ψ is invertible. Let $B \in \mathcal{B}$. Suppose that $b_1 \dots, b_{n-1}$ are the elements of B, ordered. Then the preimage is an n-tuple of integers (x_1, \dots) defined by

$$x_1 = b_1 - 1$$

$$x_i = b_i - b_{i-1}$$

$$x_n = k + n - 1 - b_{n-1}$$

It is easy to see from these equations that the x_i are non-negative and their sums yield k.

Lecture 2: factorials and birthday paradox

Sat 27 Feb

Theorème 11 (Stirling's formula)

$$n! \sqrt{2\pi n} n^n e^{-n}$$

meaning the ration goes to 1.

Preuve

Euler's integral for n! gives

$$n! = \int_0^\infty x^n e^{-x} dx$$

This is proven by induction on n.

The base case n = 0 simply gives 1.

For the integration step, we integrate by parts, giving

$$\int_0^\infty x^n e^{-x} = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \frac{d}{dx} x^n dx$$

To prove Stirlings formula, we take

$$xt^n e^{-x} = \exp(n\log x - x)$$

We now taylor expand around the maximum, this yields

$$n\log x - x = n\log n - n - \frac{1}{2n}(x-n)^2 + \dots$$

integrating this gives the desired formula.

Lecture 3: Inclusion-Exclusion and Induction

Sat 06 Mar

Let A, B be two sets, we want to compute $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$. What happens if we have n sets A_1, \ldots, A_n .

Theorème 12 (Inclusion-Exclusion Formula)

Let A_1, \ldots, A_n be finite sets, then

$$|\bigcup A_i| = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} |A_i| - \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} |A_i \cap A_j| + \sum_{1 \le i < j < k \le n} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k| - \dots$$

Let B_1, \ldots, B_m and w_1, \ldots, w_m , then

$$\sum_{i} w_{i} |B_{i}| = \sum_{i} \sum_{b \in B_{i}} w_{i} = \sum_{b \in B \ indices \ i \ such \ that \ b \in B_{i}} w_{i}$$

where $B = \bigcup B_i$

Lecture 4: Combinatorial applications of polynomials and generating series

Sun 14 Mar

We note that arithmetic operations with finite sets have similarities.

$$(a+b) \cdot c = a \cdot c + b \cdot c$$

$$(A \cup B) \cap C = A \cap C \cup B \cap C$$

Exemple

Prove the identity

$$\sum \binom{n}{i}^2 = \binom{2}{n}n$$

Consider

$$(1+x)^n \cdot (1+x)^n = (1+x)^{2n}$$

By computing the coefficients of x^n , we find the desired equality.

Theorème 14 (Multinomial theorem)

$$(x_1 + \ldots + x_n)^k = \sum_{i_1, \ldots, \ge 0, i_1 + i_2 + \ldots = k} \frac{k!}{i_1! \ldots i_n!} x_1^{i_1} x_2^{i_2} \ldots x_n^{i_n}$$

Preuve

Note that

$$\frac{k!}{i_1! \dots i_n!}$$

is the number of sequences of length k from the letters " x_1, x_2, \ldots " such that x_j is used i_j times.

Definition 6 (Generating series)

Let a_n be a sequence of complex numbers, then the generating series of this sequence is

$$a(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

Definition 7 (Formal power series)

A formal power series is an infinite sum

$$a(x) = \sum a_n x^n$$

where a_n is a sequence of complex numbers and x is a formal variable.

Proposition 15

Let $a(x) = \sum a_n x^n$ be a formal power series. Suppose that there exists a positive real number K such that $|a_n| < K^n$ for all n. Then the series converges absolutely for all $x \in]-\frac{1}{k},\frac{1}{k}[$.

Moreover, the function a(x) as derivatives of all orders at 0.

We can add and multiply formal power series.

However, in general, substitution is not well defined

$$a(b(x)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n b(x)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} b_m x^m)^n$$

It is only well defined if $b_0 = 0$.

We can also differentiate, resp. integrate formal power series.

Theorème 16 (Generalized binomial theorem)

For every $r \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$(1+x)^r = \binom{r}{0} + \binom{r}{1}x \dots$$

where

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

Lecture 5: Binary trees

Definition 8 (Binary Tree)

A binary tree is either empty, or consists of one distinguished vertex called the root, plus an ordered pair of binary trees calle de left subtree and the right subtree.

Sat 20 Mar

We denote by b_n the number of binary trees with n vertices. We want to fin a closed formula for b_n The inductive definition yields

$$b_n = b_0 \cdot b_{n-1} + b_1 \cdot b_{n-2} + \ldots + b_{n-1} \cdot b_0$$

Consider

$$b(x) = \sum b_n x^n$$

And we use

$$b_n = \sum b_k \cdot b_{n-k-1}$$

Now we use

$$b(x) \cdot b(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} b_m b_{k-m} \right) x^k$$
$$= \frac{1}{x} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k x^k \right) = \frac{1}{x} (b(x) - b_0)$$

Hence, b(x) satisfies

$$xb^{2}(x) - b(x) + 1 = 0$$

Hence

$$b(x) = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x}$$
 and $b(x) = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x}$

are solutions.

Note that the first solution is not bounded around 0.

However, the second solution is smooth around 0 because

$$\tilde{b}(x) := \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x} = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4x}}$$

Hence, $\tilde{b}(x)$ has derivatives of all orders.

We want to establish the connection between \tilde{b} and b.

Consider the taylor expansion of \tilde{b}

$$\tilde{b}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \tilde{b}_n \cdot x^n$$

Still, \tilde{b} satisfies the quadratic equation, we want to show

$$\tilde{b}_n = \sum \tilde{b}_k \cdot \tilde{b}_{n-k-1}$$

By taylors theorem

$$\tilde{b}(x) = \tilde{b}_0 + \tilde{b}_1 x + \ldots + O(x^{n+1})$$

We substitute this into the quadratic equation, which yields

$$x(\tilde{b}_0 + \dots \tilde{b}_n x^n + O(x^{n+1}))^2 - (\tilde{b}_0 + \dots + \tilde{b}_n x^n + O(x^{n+1})) + 1 = 0$$

Solving for \tilde{b}_n yields the desired equation.

Applying the generalized binomial theorem gives a closed form for b_n

$$b_n = -\frac{1}{2}(-4)^{n+1} \binom{\frac{1}{2}}{n+1}$$

We define the b_n 's as Catalans number.

Lecture 6: Fibonacci Numbers Definition 9 (Fibonacci Sequence)

The sequence is defined by

$$F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$$

Sat 27 Mar

Theorème 17

$$\lim_{n \to +\infty} \frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n} = \phi$$

Preuve

Consider

$$F(x) = \sum F_i x^i$$

Hence

$$F(x) - xF(x) - X^{2}F(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F_{n}x^{n} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F_{n-1}x^{n} - \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} F_{n-2}x^{n} = x$$

Hence

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

Hence F as derivatives of all orderes at 0, writing the taylor expansion yields

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

Lecture 7: Linear Recurrence Relations Definition 10 (Linear Recurrence)

Sat 27 Mar

A sequence of complex numbers satisfy a linear recurrence relation if there existe numbers c_0, \ldots, c_{k-1} such that

$$a_{n+k} = c_0 a_n + c_1 a_{n+1} + \ldots + c_{k-1} a_{n+k-1}$$

forall $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

Lemme 18

Let $f = \frac{P}{Q}$ the ratio of two polynomials with $\deg Q > \deg P$. Suppose that $Q(x) = (x - \mu_1)^{l_1} \dots (x - \mu_t)^{l_t}$ for some μ_1, \dots , then there

exist $A_{i,m}$ such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \sum_{m=1}^{l_j} \frac{A_{j,m}}{(x - \mu_j)^m}$$

Theorème 19

Suppose that a sequence a_n satisfies a linear recurrence relation

$$a_{n+k} = c_0 a_n + c_1 a_{n+1} + \dots, +c_{k-1} a_{n+k-1}$$

Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_s$ be the complex roots of the polynomial

$$x^k - c^{k-1}x^{k-1} - \ldots - c_0 = 0$$

where λ_i as multiplicity k_i .

Then there exist polynomials P_1, \ldots, P_s of degree $k_i - 1$ such that

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^s P_i(n)\lambda_i^n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Preuve

Suppose that a sequence a_n satisfies a linear recurrence relation as above. Let $a(x) = \sum a_i x^i$, the recurrence relation implies

$$0 = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_{n+k} - c_{k-1}a_{n+k-1} - \dots - c_0a_n) x^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} a_n x^{n-k} - c_{k-1} \sum_{n=k-1}^{\infty} a_n x^{n-k+1} - \dots$$

Rewriting this expression yields

$$a(x)(x^{-k} - c_{k-1}x^{-k+1} - \ldots) = \sum_{n=1}^{k} b_n x^{-n}$$

where b_n is linearly dependent with the initial terms. Dividing, this yields

$$a(x) = \frac{b_1 x^{-1} + \dots + b_k x^{-k}}{x^{-k} - c^{k-1} x^{-k+1} - \dots}$$

Therefore $a(x) = x \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$. Suppose $Q(x) = (x - \mu_1)^{l_1} \dots$

By the lemma

$$a(x) = x \sum_{j=1}^{t} \sum_{m=1}^{l_j} \frac{A_{j,m}}{(x - \mu_j)^m}$$

Observe that if λ_j is a root of

$$x^k - c_{k-1}x^{k-1} - \ldots - c_0$$

then $\mu_j^{-1} = \lambda_j$, also, if m is fixed, n can be considered as a variable and then

$$-n(n-1)\dots(n-m+1)$$

is a polynomial of degree m.

1.4 Linear recurrences in matrix form

Let a_n be a linearly recursive series, for each $n \geq 0$ we consider the vector

$$a_n = \begin{pmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n+k-1} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then the recurrence relation can be written as

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n+k} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ c_0 & c_1 & c_2 & \dots & c_{k-1} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n+k-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

and more generally, we have

$$a_n = C^n \cdot a_0$$

Lecture 8: Moebios inversion formula

Sat 17 Apr

2 Moebius inversion formulas

2.1 Moebf

Let $f: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} \to \mathbb{C}$ be a function, we define a new function $F: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} \to \mathbb{C}$ by

$$F(n) := \sum_{d|n} f(d), n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$$

Exemple

Let f(n) = 1 for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, then $F(n) = \sum_{d|n} 1$ which is the number of divisors of n.

Question

Suppose that we know F. How do we recover f?

Definition 11 (Moebius function)

$$\mu: \mathbb{Z}_{>1} \to \mathbb{Z}$$

is defined as follows.

Suppose that $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ has the prime factorization

$$n = p_1^{e_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_r^{e_r}$$

then

$$\mu(n) := \begin{cases} 1 \text{ for } n = 1 \\ 0 \text{ if some } e_i > 1 \\ (-1)^r \text{ if } e_1 = e_2 = \ldots = 1 \end{cases}$$

Lemme 21

For $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ we have

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Preuve

By induction, we check that

$$\sum_{d|1} \mu(d) = \mu(1) = 1$$

Now suppose that $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ has the prime factorization

$$n = p_1^{e_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_r^{e_r}$$

Set $n^* := \prod p_i$, the square free part of n.

If d|n and $d \nmid n*$, then d has a prime divisor of multiplicity > 1, then $\mu(d) = 0$. Hence

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \sum_{d|n^*} \mu(d)$$

Now can easily compute

$$\sum_{d|n^*} \mu(d) = \sum_{d|p_1...p_r} \mu(d) = \sum_{I \subset \{1,...,r\}} \mu(\prod_{i \in I} p_i)$$

$$= \sum_{I \subset \{1,...,r\}} (-1)^{|I|}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{r} (-1)^k \binom{r}{k} = (1-1)^r = 0$$

Theorème 22 (Moebius inversion formula)

Let $f, F : \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} \to \mathbb{C}$ be such that

$$F(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d), \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$$
 (1)

Then

$$f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) F(\frac{n}{d}) \tag{2}$$

Moreover, (2) implies (1)

Preuve

Let d and n be positive integers such that d|n.

Then $F(\frac{n}{d}) = \sum_{d' \mid \frac{n}{d}} f(d')$, therefore

$$\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) F(\frac{n}{d}) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \sum_{d' \mid \frac{n}{d'}} f(d')$$

Consider the set S_n of all pairs $(d, d') \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ such that

$$d|n \text{ and } d'|\frac{n}{d}$$

If n and its divisor d' are fixe, then d runs over all divisors of $\frac{n}{d'}$. Hence, we can change the order of summation

$$\sum_{d|n} \sum_{d'|\frac{n}{d}} \mu(d) f(d') = \sum_{(d,d') \in S_n} \mu(d) f(d')$$
$$= \sum_{d'|n} \sum_{d|\frac{n}{d'}} f(d') \mu(d)$$

Using the lemma above, we get

$$\sum_{d'|n} \sum_{d|\frac{n}{d'}} f(d')\mu(d) = \sum_{d'|n} f(d') \sum_{d|\frac{n}{d'}} \mu(d)$$
$$= f(n)$$

We now show the other implication, namely

Let $F: \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{C}$ be any function.

Set $f(n) := \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) F(\frac{n}{d})$, then for $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$

$$\sum_{d|n} f(d) = \sum_{d|n} \sum_{d'|d} \mu(d') F(\frac{d}{d'})$$

we make the change of variables

$$\{(d,d')|d|n,d'|d\} \to \{(d'',d')|d''|n,d'|\frac{n}{d''}\}$$

Then

$$= \sum_{d''|n} \sum_{d'|\frac{n}{d''}} \mu(d') F(d'') = \sum_{d''|n} F(d'') \sum_{d'|\frac{n}{d''}} \mu(d') = F(n)$$

2.2 Computing the number of cyclic sequences

Definition 12 (Linear sequence)

Let A be a set. A linear sequence of length n in the alphabet A is an element of A^n :

$$a = (a_1, \dots, a_n), a_k \in A \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n$$

The number of linear sequences of length n in an alphabet of size r is r^n . Consider the following equivalence relation on the set of linear sequences

$$(a_1,\ldots,a_n)\sim(a_2,\ldots,a_n,a_1)$$

Two linear sequences are equivalent if one of them can be obtained from another by a cyclic shift.

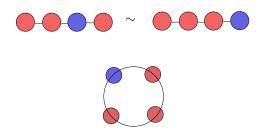


FIGURE 1 – Linear sequence

Exemple

Definition 13 (Cyclic sequence)

A cyclic sequence of length n in an alphabet A is an equivalence class of linear sequences with respect to the relation \sim .

Proposition 24

The number of T(n,r) of cyclic sequences of length n on an alphabet of size r is

$$T(n,r) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{d|n} \phi(\frac{n}{d}) r^d$$

Definition 14 (Period of cyclic sequence)

A period of a cyclic sequence (a_1, \ldots, a_n) is a minimal number $k \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ such that

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = (a_{1+k}, a_{2+k}, \dots, a_1, \dots, a_k)$$

are equal as linear sequences.

Exercise

Show that a k is always a divisor of n.

Let M(d,r) be the number of cyclic sequences of length d and of period r. We notice that

$$r^n = \sum_{d|n} d \cdot M(d,r)$$

Indeed, notice that there exists π a projection from the linear sequences of length n into the cyclic sequences.

The number of preimages of a cyclic sequence under the map π is d, the period of the sequence, therefore, if we denote by $\mathcal{L}(n,r)$ the set of linear sequences, we get

$$r^n = |\mathcal{L}(n,r)| = \sum_{d|n} d \cdot |M(d,r)|$$

Applying the Moebius inversion formula, we obtain

$$n \cdot M(n,r) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(\frac{d}{n})r^d$$

Each cyclic sequence has a well defined period d and it corresponds to the unique cyclic sequence of length d and period d. Thus

$$T(n,r) = \sum_{d|n} M(d,r)$$

Combining both formulas above, we get

$$\begin{split} T(n,r) &= \sum_{d|n} M(d,r) \\ &= \sum_{d|n} \frac{1}{d} \sum_{d'|d} \mu(\frac{d}{d'}) r^{d'} \\ &= \sum_{d'|n} \sum_{d''|\frac{n}{d'}} \frac{1}{d' \cdot d''} \mu(d'') r^{d'} \end{split}$$

Now we have to compute the sum

$$\sum_{d''\mid \frac{n}{d'}} \frac{1}{d''} \mu(d'')$$

As an exercise, show that for $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, $\sum_{d|n} \frac{1}{d}\mu(d) = \frac{\phi(n)}{n}$. Using this, we finally obtain that

$$T(n,r) = \sum_{d'|n} \frac{\phi(\frac{n}{d'})}{n} r^{d'}$$

2.3 Moebius inversion for posets

Definition 15 (Binary relation)

A binary relation on a set A is a subset $R \subseteq A \times A$.

A relation is antisymmetric provided $(a,b) \in R$ and $(b,a) \in R$ imply a = b.

A relation is transitive if $(a,b) \in R$ and $(b,c) \in R$ imply $(a,c) \in R$

A relation is reflexive if $(a, a) \in R$ for all $a \in R$.

Exemple

- 1. The relation \leq on \mathbb{Z} is antisymmetric, transitive, and reflexive
- 2. The relation < on \mathbb{Z} is antisymmetric, transitive and not reflexive
- 3. The relation coprime is not antysimmetric, not transitive and not reflexive

Definition 16 (Partial Order)

A partial order on a set A is an antisymmetric reflexive and transitive relation $R \subseteq A \times A$.

A partially ordered set (or poset) is a set together with a partial order

Exemple

Let A be a set. The set 2^A of subsets of A is a partially ordered set by inclusion

- $-- \textit{Reflexivity}: X \subseteq X$
- Transitivity: if $X \subseteq y$ and $Y \subseteq Z$ then $X \subseteq Z$
- Antisymnmetric: if $X \subseteq Y$ and $Y \subseteq X$ then X = Y

Exemple

The set $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ is partially ordere by the relation d divides n.

- Reflexivity: n divides n
- Transitivity: if d|n and d'|d then d'|n
- Antisymnmetric: if n|m and m|n then m = n.

We can represent such relations with Hasse diagrams in the following way

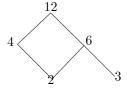


FIGURE 2 – Hasse diagram 12

Definition 17 (Locally finite poset)

A partially ordered set (X, \geq) is locally finite if for all $x, y \in X$ the interval

$$[x,y] := \{ z \in X | y \le z \le x \}$$

is finite.

We say that $0 \in X$ is a zero element if $0 \le x$ for all $x \in X$

Let (X, \leq) be a partially ordered locally finite set with 0.

Suppose that $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ is a function.

We define a new function $F: X \to \mathbb{C}$ by

$$F(x) \coloneqq \sum_{y \le x} f(y)$$

How do we recover f from F?

Theorème 28 (Moebius inversion for posets)

Given a partially ordered set X, there is a two variable function $M: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$F(x) = \sum_{y \le x} f(y) \iff f(x) = \sum_{y \le x} F(y) M(x, y)$$

M is called the Moebius function of the poset.

Definition 18 (Incidence algebra A(X))

Given a partially ordered set X, the incidence algebra A(X) is the set of complex valued functions $f: X^2 \to \mathbb{C}$ satisfying f(x,y) = 0 unless $x \leq y$.

A(X) is a vector space over $\mathbb C$ with respect to pointwise addition and multiplication by scalars.

To make it into an algebra we need one more operation

Definition 19 (Convolution)

Given $f, g \in A(X)$, their convolution f * g is defined by

$$f * g(x,y) = \sum_{x \le z \le y} f(x,z)g(z,y)$$

Definition 20

The delta function δ is the element of A(X)

$$\delta(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Remarque

Convolution is not always commutative.

Lemme 30

A function $f \in A(X)$ has a left and right inverse with respect to the convolution if and only if $f(x,x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in X$

Preuve

Given $f \in A(X)$ we find $g \in A(X)$ such that

$$f*g(x,y) = \sum_{x \leq z \leq y} f(x,z)g(z,y) = \delta(x,y)$$

For all $x \in X$

$$f * g(x,x) = f(x,x)g(x,x) = \delta(x,x) = 1$$

Therefore, the condition $f(x,x) \neq 0$ is necessary for the existence of the inverse. We define $g(x,x) := f(x,x)^{-1}$.

To define g(x,y) for x < y, we assume by induction, that we have already found all g(z,y) for all z, satisfying $x < z \le y$.

Then

$$\delta(x,y) = 0 = \sum_{x \le z \le y} f(x,z)g(z,y)$$

$$-f(x,x)g(x,y) = \sum_{x \le z \le y} f(x,z)g(z,y)$$

We can now solve for g(x, y).

Finally, if $f * g_1 = \delta$ and $g_2 * f = \delta$, then

$$g_2 = g_2 * \delta = g_2 * f * g_1 = \delta * g_1 = g_1$$

Therefore, the left and the right inverses of f coincide.

Definition 21 (Zeta function)

The Zeta function Z(x,y) of the poset (X,\leq) is the function

$$Z(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leq y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Definition 22 (Moebius function)

The Moebius function M(x,y) is the inverse of the zeta function Z with respect to convolution.

We can now prove the Moebius inversion for posets

Preuve

Let $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be a function and $F: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be defined by

$$F(x) = \sum_{y \le x} f(y)$$

Then, for a fixed $x \in X$:

$$\begin{split} \sum_{y \leq x} F(y) M(y,x) &= \sum_{y \leq x} M(y,x) \sum_{z \leq y} f(z) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq y \leq x} f(z) M(y,x) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq x} f(z) \sum_{z \leq y \leq x} M(y,x) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq x} f(z) \left(\sum_{z \leq y \leq x} Z(z,y) M(y,x) \right) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq y} f(z) (Z*M)(z,x) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq y} f(z) \delta(z,x) \end{split}$$

Now we show that the inverse is also true.

Let $F: X \to \mathbb{C}$ be a function and we define $f: X \to \mathbb{C}$ by

$$f(x) = \sum_{y \le x} F(y)M(y, x), x \in X$$

Then,

$$\sum_{y \le x} f(y) = \sum_{y \le x} \sum_{z \le y} F(z) M(z, y)$$
$$= \sum_{z \le y \le x} F(z) M(z, y)$$

$$\begin{split} &= \sum_{z \leq y \leq x} F(z) M(z,y) Z(z,y) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq x} F(z) \left(\sum_{z \leq y \leq x} M(z,y) Z(y,x) \right) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq x} F(z) \left(\sum_{z \leq y \leq x} M(z,y) Z(y,x) \right) \\ &= \sum_{z \leq x} F(z) \delta(z,x) = F(x) \end{split}$$

Lemme 31

Let 2^A be the set of subsets of a finite set A.

 2^A is partially ordered by inclusion.

The Moebius function of 2^A is given by

$$M(x,y) = (-1)^{|x|-|y|}$$

Where $x \subseteq y \subseteq A$

Preuve

We have to show that $M*Z=\delta$. Let x,y be two subsets of A such that $x\subseteq y$. We compute

$$\begin{split} M*Z(x,y) &= \sum_{x\subseteq z\subseteq y} M(x,z)Z(z,y) \\ &= \sum_{x\subseteq z\subseteq y} (-1)^{|x|-|z|} \\ &= \sum_{w\subseteq y\backslash x} (-1)^{|w|} \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } |y\backslash x| \geq 1 \\ 1, |y\backslash x| = \emptyset \end{cases} = \delta(x,y) \quad \Box \end{split}$$