

1. Solve the recurrence relation $a_{n+2} - a_{n+1} - 6a_n = 0$ given $a_0=2$ and $a_1=1$ using generating functions

Solution:

Given recurrence relation is

$$a_{n+2} - a_{n+1} - 6a_n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n+2} x^n - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n+1} x^n - 6 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n+2} x^{n+2} - \frac{1}{x} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n+1} x^{n+1} - 6 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^2} [G(x) - a_0 - a_1 x] - \frac{1}{x} [G(x) - a_0] - 6[G(x)] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^2} [G(x) - 2 - x] - \frac{1}{x} [G(x) - 2] - 6G(x) = 0$$

Multiply by x^2 we have

Generating functions

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

Now apply partial fraction

$$\frac{2-x}{1-x-6x^2} = \frac{A}{1-3x} + \frac{B}{1+2x}$$

$$2-x = A(1+2x) + B(1-3x) \dots (1)$$

Put $x = -1/2$ in (1) we get

$$5/2 = 5/2B \Rightarrow B = 1$$

Put $x = 1/3$ in (1) we get $A = 1$

$a_n = \text{co efficient of } x^n \text{ in } [(1+3x+3x^2+\dots 3x^n)+1-2x+2x^2\dots+(-1)^n 2x^n]$

$$a_n = 3^n + (-1)^n 2^n$$

Identify the sequence having the expression $\frac{5+2x}{1-4x^2}$ as a generating function

Solution:

$$\text{Given } G(x) = \frac{5+2x}{1-4x^2} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

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

Now

$$\frac{5+2x}{(1-2x)(1+2x)} = \frac{A}{(1+2x)} + \frac{B}{(1-2x)}$$

$$5+2x = A(1-2x) + B(1+2x)$$

$$\text{Put } x=1/2, 5+1=2B \Rightarrow B=3$$

$$x=-1/2, 5-1=2A \Rightarrow A=2$$

$$\begin{aligned} G(x) &= \frac{2}{(1+2x)} + \frac{3}{(1-2x)} \\ &= 2 [1+2x]^{-1} + 3 [1-2x]^{-1} \\ &= 2 [1-2x+2x^2-2x^3+\dots] + 3 [1+2x+2x^2+\dots] \\ &= 2 \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n + 2 \end{aligned}$$

UNIT III GRAPHS

3.1 GRAPHS & GRAPH MODELS

DEFINITION: Graph:

A Graph $G=(V,E,\phi)$ consists of a non empty set $v=\{v_1,v_2,\dots\}$ called the set of nodes (Points, Vertices) of the graph, $E=\{e_1,e_2,\dots\}$ is said to be the set of edges of the graph, and ϕ is a mapping from the set of edges E to set of ordered or unordered pairs of elements of V .

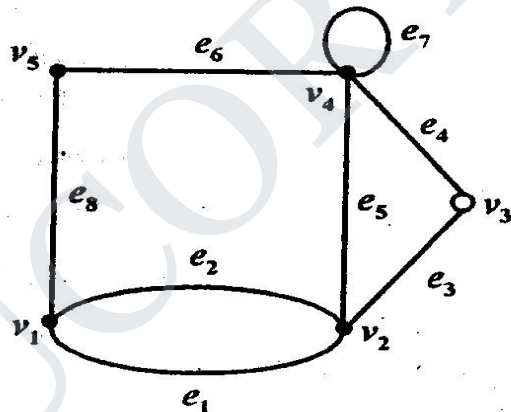
The vertices are represented by points and each edge is represented by a line diagrammatically.

DEFINITIONS:

From the figure we have the following definitions

v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5 are called vertices.

$e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7, e_8$ are called edges.

**DEFINITION: Self Loop:**

If there is an edge from v_i to v_i then that edge is called **self loop** or **simply loop**.

For example, the edge e_7 is called a self loop. Since the edge e_7 has the same vertex (v_4) as both its terminal vertices.

DEFINITION: Parallel Edges:

If two edges have same end points then the edges are called **parallel edges**.

For example, the edge e_1 and e_2 are called parallel edges since e_1 and e_2 have the same pair of vertices (v_1, v_2) as their terminal vertices.

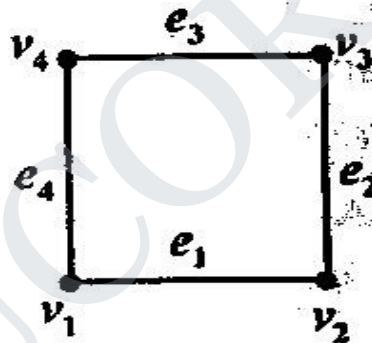
DEFINITION: Incident:

If the vertex v_i is an end vertex of some edge e_k and e_k is said to be **incident** with v_i .

DEFINITION: Adjacent edges and vertices:

Two edges are said to be adjacent if they are incident on a common vertex. In fig (i) the edges e_6 and e_8 are adjacent.

Two vertices v_i and v_j are said to be adjacent if $v_i v_j$ is an edge of the graph. (or equivalently (v_i, v_j) is an end vertices of the edge e_k)



For example, in fig., v_1 and v_5 are adjacent vertices.

DEFINITION: Simple Graph:

A graph which has neither self loops nor parallel edges is called a **simple graph**.

NOTE: In this chapter, unless and otherwise stated we consider only simple undirected graphs.

DEFINITION: Isolated Vertex:

A vertex having no edge incident on it is called an **Isolated vertex**. It is obvious that for an isolated vertex degree is zero.

One can easily note that Isolated vertex is not adjacent to any vertex.

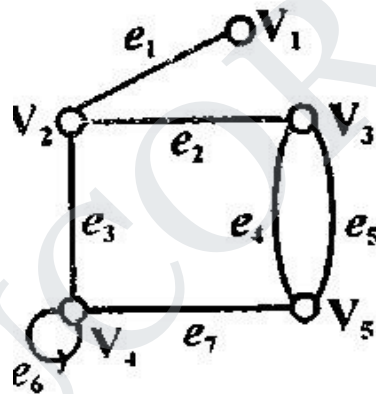
If fig (ii), v_5 is isolated Vertex.

DEFINITION: Pendent Vertex:

If the degree of any vertex is one, then that vertex is called pendent vertex.

EXAMPLE:

Consider the graph



In the above undirected graph

Vertices $V = \{V_1, V_2, V_3, V_4, V_5\}$

Edges $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots\}$

And $e_1 = \langle V_1, V_2 \rangle$ or $\langle V_2, V_1 \rangle$

$e_2 = \langle V_2, V_3 \rangle$ or $\langle V_3, V_2 \rangle$

$e_4 = \langle V_4, V_2 \rangle$ or $\langle V_4, V_2 \rangle$

$e_5 = \langle V_4, V_4 \rangle$

In the above graph vertices V_1 and V_2 , V_2 and V_3 , V_3 and V_4 , V_3 and V_5 are adjacent. Whereas V_1 and V_3 , V_3 and V_4 are not adjacent.

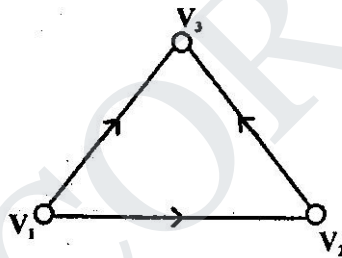
The edge e_6 is called loop. The edges e_4 and e_5 are parallel edges.

Directed Edges:

In a graph $G=(V,E)$, an edge which is associated with an ordered pair of $V * V$ is called a **directed edge** of G .

If an edge which is associated with an unordered pair of nodes is called an **undirected edge**.

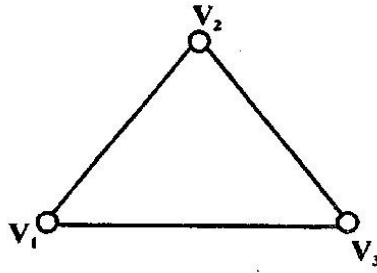
Digraph:



A graph in which every edge is directed edge is called a **digraph** or **directed graph**.

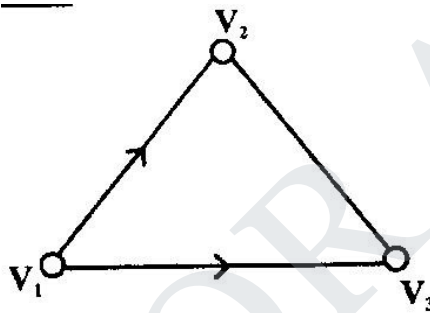
Undirected Graph:

A graph in which every edge is undirected edge is called an **undirected graph**.



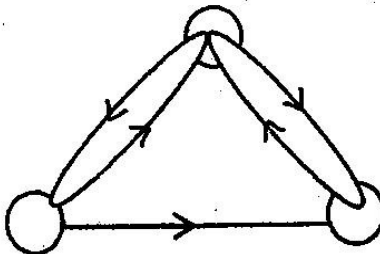
Mixed Graph:

If some edges are directed and some are undirected in a graph, the graph is called an **mixed graph**.



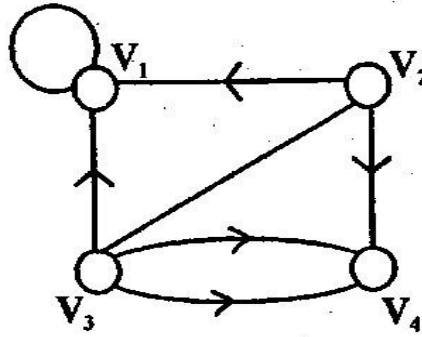
Multi Graph:

A graph which contains some parallel edges is called a **multigraph**.



Pseudograph:

A graph in which loops and parallel edges are allowed is called a **Pseudograph**.



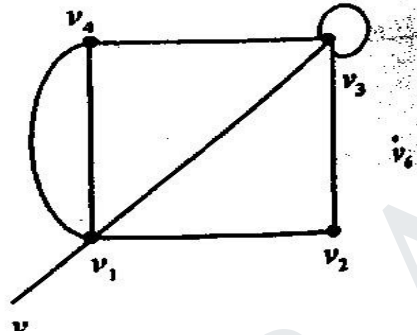
STUCOR APP

3.2 GRAPH TERMINOLOGY

DEF

The number of edges incident at the vertex v_i is called the **degree of the vertex** with self loops counted twice and it is denoted by $d(v_i)$.

Example 1:



$$d(v_1) = 5 \quad d(v_4) = 3$$

$$d(v_2) = 2 \quad d(v_5) = 1$$

$$d(v_3) = 5 \quad d(v_6) = 0$$

In-degree and out-degree of a directed graph:

In a directed graph, the in-degree of a vertex V , denoted by $\deg^-(V)$ and defined by the number of edges with V as their terminal vertex.

The out-degree of V , denoted by $\deg^+(V)$, is the number of edges with V as their initial vertex.

NOTE: A loop at a vertex contributes 1 to both the in-degree and the out-degree of this vertex.

Theorem 1: (The Handshaking Theorem)

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph with ' e ' edges. Then

$$\deg(v) = 2e$$

The sum of degrees of all vertices of an undirected graph is twice the number of edges of the graph and hence even.

Proof:

Since every degree is incident with exactly two vertices, every edge contributes 2 to the sum of the degree of the vertices.

Therefore, All the 'e' edges contribute (2e) to the sum of the degrees of vertices.

Therefore, $\deg(v) = 2e$

Theorem 2:

In an undirected graph, the numbers of odd degree vertices are even.

Proof:

Let V_1 and V_2 be the set of all vertices of even degree and set of all vertices of odd degree, respectively, in a graph $G = (V, E)$.

Therefore,

$$d(v) = d(v_i) + d(v_j)$$

By handshaking theorem, we have

Since each $\deg(v_i)$ is even, is even.

As left hand side of equation (1) is even and the first expression on the RHS of (1) is even, we have the 2nd expression on the RHS must be even.

Since each $\deg(v_j)$ is odd, the number of terms contained in

i.e., The number of vertices of odd degree is even.

Theorem 3:

The maximum number of edges in a simple graph with 'n' vertices is $n(n-1)/2$.

Proof:

We prove this theorem by the principle of Mathematical Induction.

For $n=1$, a graph with one vertex has no edges.

Therefore, the result is true for $n=1$.

For $n=2$, a graph with 2 vertices may have at most one edge.

Therefore, $2^2 - 2 = 1$

The result is true for $n=2$.

Assume that the result is true for $n=k$. i.e., a graph with k vertices has at most $k(k-1)/2$ edges.

When $n=k+1$. Let G be a graph having ' n ' vertices and G' be the graph obtained from G by deleting one vertex say $v \in V(G)$.

Since G' has k vertices, then by the hypothesis G' has at most $k(k-1)/2$ edges. Now add the vertex ' v ' to G' . such that ' v ' may be adjacent to all k vertices of G' .

Therefore, the total number of edges in G is,

Therefore, the result is true for $n=k+1$.

Hence the maximum number of edges in a simple graph with ' n ' vertices is $n(n-1)/2$.

Theorem 4:

If all the vertices of an undirected graph are each of degree k , show that the number of edges of the graph is a multiple of k .

Proof:

Let $2n$ be the number of vertices of the given graph.

Let n_e be the number of edges of the given graph.

By Handshaking theorem, we have

Therefore, the number of edges of the given graph is a multiple of k .

STUCOR APP

3.3

Regular graph:

Definition: Regular graph:

If every vertex of a simple graph has the same degree, then the graph is called a *regular graph*.

If every vertex in a regular graph has degree k , then the graph is called *k -regular*.

DEFINITION : Complete graph:

In a graph, if there exist an edge between every pair of vertices, then such a graph is called complete graph.

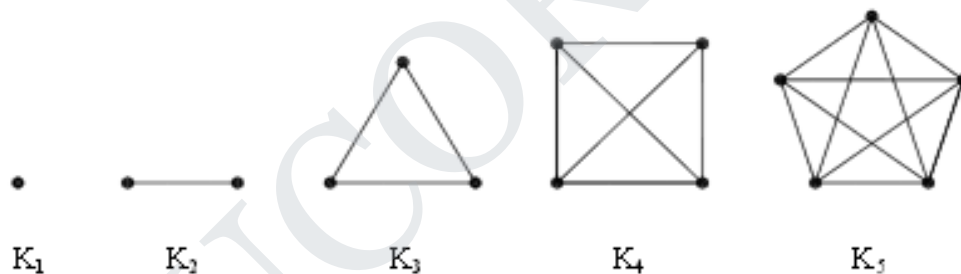


Fig. 1.10 Some complete graphs.

i.e., In a graph if every pair of vertices are adjacent, then such a graph is called complete graph.

If it is noted that, every complete graph is a regular graph. In fact every complete graph with n vertices is a $(n-1)$ regular graph.

SUBGRAPH

A graph $H = (V', E')$ is called a subgraph of $G = (V, E)$, if $V' \subset V$ and $E' \subset E$.

In other words, a graph H is said to be a subgraph of G if all the vertices and all edges of H are in G and if the adjacency is preserved in H exactly as in G .

Hence, we have the following:

- (i) Each graph has its own subgraph.
- (ii) A single vertex in a graph G is a subgraph of G .
- (iii) A single edge in G , together with its end vertices is also a subgraph of G .
- (iv) A subgraph of a subgraph of G is also a subgraph of G .

Note: Any subgraph of a graph G can be obtained by removing certain vertices and edges from G . It is to be noted that the removal of an edge does not go with the removal of its adjacent vertices, whereas the removal of any edge incident on it.

Bipartite graph:

A graph G is said to be **bipartite** if its vertex set $V(G)$ can be partitioned into two disjoint non empty sets V_1 and V_2 , $V_1 \cup V_2 = V(G)$, such that every edge in $E(G)$ has one end vertex in V_1 and another end vertex in V_2 . (So that no edges in G connect either two vertices in V_1 or two vertices in V_2 .)

Examples of bipartite and complete bipartite graphs are shown in Figure 1.11.

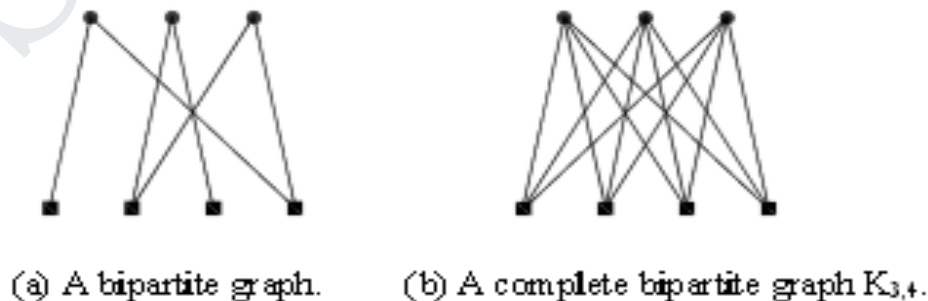


Fig. 1.11 Two bipartite graphs.

Complete Bipartite Graph:

A bipartite graph G , with the bipartition V_1 and V_2 , is called ***complete bipartite graph***, if every vertex in V_1 is adjacent to every vertex in V_2 . Clearly, every vertex in V_2 is adjacent to every vertex in V_1 .

A complete bipartite graph with ' m ' and ' r ' vertices in the bipartition is denoted by $K_{m,n}$.

STUCOR APP

Incidence Matrix

Let G be a graph with n vertices, m edges and without self-loops. The incidence matrix A of G is an $n \times m$ matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ whose n rows correspond to the n vertices and the m columns correspond to m edges such that

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j\text{th edge } m_j \text{ is incident on the } i\text{th vertex} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It is also called *vertex-edge incidence matrix* and is denoted by $A(G)$.

Example Consider the graphs given in Figure 10.1. The incidence matrix of G_1 is

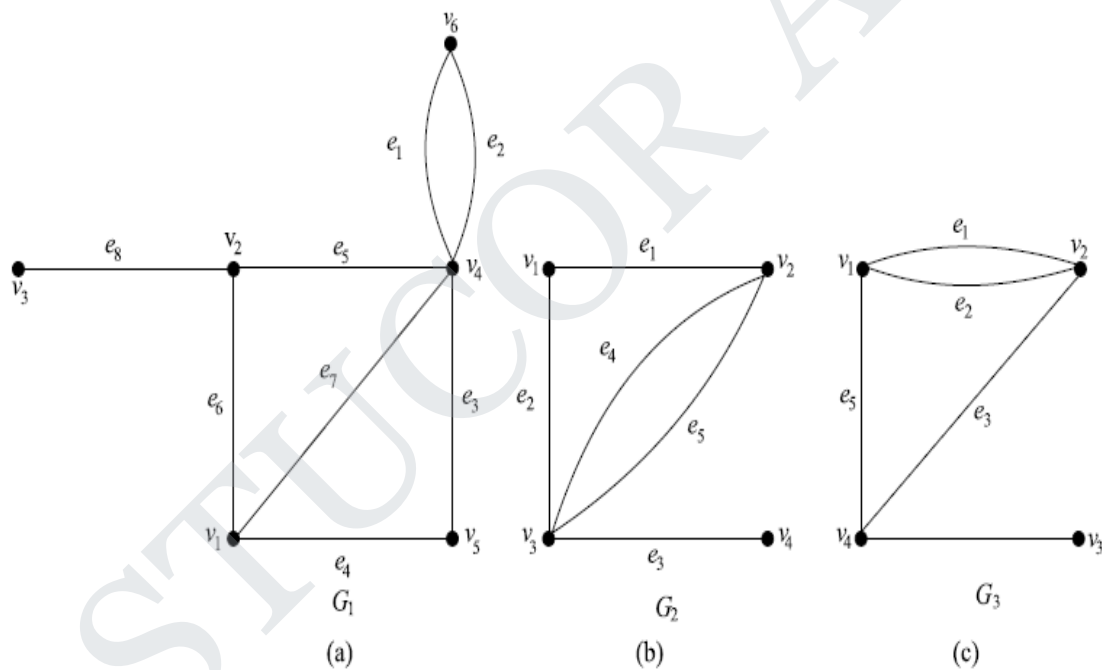
$$A(G_1) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 & e_6 & e_7 & e_8 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \\ v_5 \\ v_6 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}.$$

The incidence matrix of G_2 is

$$A(G_2) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}.$$

The incidence matrix of G_3 is

$$A(G_3) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}.$$



The incidence matrix contains only two types of elements, 0 and 1. This clearly is a binary matrix or a (0, 1)-matrix.

We have the following observations about the incidence matrix A .

1. Since every edge is incident on exactly two vertices, each column of A has exactly two one's.
2. The number of one's in each row equals the degree of the corresponding vertex.
3. A row with all zeros represents an isolated vertex.
4. Parallel edges in a graph produce identical columns in its incidence matrix.
5. If a graph is disconnected and consists of two components G_1 and G_2 , the incidence matrix $A(G)$ of graph G can be written in a block diagonal form as

$$A(G) = \begin{bmatrix} A(G_1) & 0 \\ 0 & A(G_2) \end{bmatrix},$$

where $A(G_1)$ and $A(G_2)$ are the incidence matrices of components G_1 and G_2 . This observation results from the fact that no edge in G_1 is incident on vertices of G_2 and vice versa. Obviously, this is also true for a disconnected graph with any number of components.

6. Permutation of any two rows or columns in an incidence matrix simply corresponds to relabeling the vertices and edges of the same graph.

Path Matrix

Let G be a graph with m edges, and u and v be any two vertices in G . The path matrix for vertices u and v denoted by $P(u, v) = [p_{ij}]_{q \times m}$, where q is the number of different paths between u and v , is defined as

$$p_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j\text{th edge lies in the } i\text{th path,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Clearly, a path matrix is defined for a particular pair of vertices, the rows in $P(u, v)$ correspond to different paths between u and v , and the columns correspond to different edges in G . For example, consider the graph in Figure 10.10.

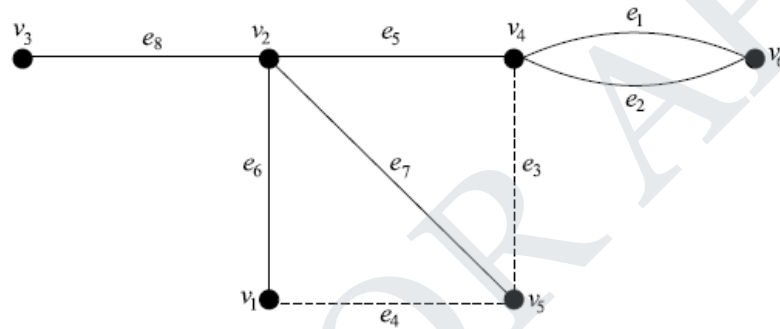


Fig. 10.10

The different paths between the vertices v_3 and v_4 are

$$p_1 = \{e_8, e_5\}, p_2 = \{e_8, e_7, e_3\} \text{ and } p_3 = \{e_8, e_6, e_4, e_3\}.$$

The path matrix for v_3, v_4 is given by

$$P(v_3, v_4) = \begin{matrix} & e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 & e_6 & e_7 & e_8 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}.$$

We have the following observations about the path matrix.

1. A column of all zeros corresponds to an edge that does not lie in any path between u and v .
2. A column of all ones corresponds to an edge that lies in every path between u and v .
3. There is no row with all zeros.
4. The ring sum of any two rows in $P(u, v)$ corresponds to a cycle or an edge-disjoint union of cycles.

Adjacency Matrix

Let $V = (V, E)$ be a graph with $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$, $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$ and without parallel edges. The adjacency matrix of G is an $n \times n$ symmetric binary matrix $X = [x_{ij}]$ defined over the ring of integers such that

$$x_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } v_i v_j \in E, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Example Consider the graph G given in Figure 10.12.

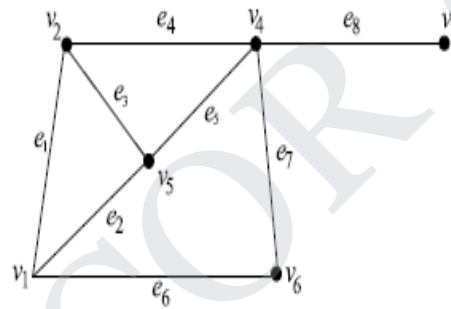


Fig. 10.12