

# Analytic Combinatorics of Unlabeled Objects

## Set of exercises III: responses

1. Prove Schur's Theorem:

**Theorem 1 (Schur's Theorem)** *If  $c_n$  represents the number of representations of  $n$  as a non-negative integer combination of  $a_1, \dots, a_M$ , these being a set of positive integers with  $\gcd(a_1, \dots, a_M) = 1$ , then*

$$c_n \sim \frac{n^{M-1}}{(M-1)! a_1 \dots a_M}.$$

**Response.** The representations correspond to multisets of  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_M$  with sizes  $|a_i| = a_i$ . Thus the generating function is

$$C(z) = \sum c_n z^n = \frac{1}{1 - z^{a_1}} \dots \frac{1}{1 - z^{a_M}}.$$

We perform partial fractions. Note that all of the roots  $\zeta$  of the denominator  $Q(z) = \prod_{j=1}^M (1 - z^{a_j})$  are roots of unity with  $\zeta^{a_j} = 1$  for some  $a_j$ .

The roots of each  $(1 - z^{a_j})$  are simple (it suffices to take the derivative), hence, the multiplicity of a root  $\zeta$  of  $Q(z)$  is the number of terms  $j$  such that  $\zeta^{a_j} = 1$ . Of course,  $\zeta = 1$  has multiplicity  $M$ . All other roots have multiplicity strictly less than  $M$ . Indeed, write  $\zeta = \exp(2\pi i \frac{p}{q})$ . Observe that if  $\zeta^{a_j} = 1$ , then  $q|a_j$ . If this were the case for every  $j$  we would have that  $q$  is a common divisor of all  $a_j$  and hence  $q = 1$ .

Thus we may write

$$C(z) = \frac{A}{(1-z)^M} + \sum_{\zeta: Q(\zeta)=0} \sum_{k=1}^{M-1} \frac{\alpha_{\zeta,k}}{(1-z/\zeta)^k},$$

for some coefficients  $A$  and  $\alpha_{\zeta,k}$ . We compute  $A$  by multiplying both sides by  $(1-z)^M$  and letting  $z \rightarrow 1$ , to obtain  $A = \frac{1}{a_1 a_2 \dots a_M}$ .  $\top$

hen we remark that

$$[z^n] \frac{\alpha_{\zeta,k}}{(1-z/\zeta)^k} = \alpha_{\zeta,k} \binom{k+n-1}{n-1} \zeta^{-n} \sim \alpha_{\zeta,k} \frac{n^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \zeta^{-n}.$$

Being  $|\zeta| = 1$  for all roots of  $Q(z)$  and  $k < M$ , it follows that these coefficients are all negligible with respect to  $[z^n] \frac{A}{(1-z)^M} \sim A \frac{n^{M-1}}{(M-1)!}$ .

Thus

$$[z^n] C(z) \sim A \frac{n^{M-1}}{(M-1)!} = \frac{n^{M-1}}{(M-1)! a_1 \dots a_M}.$$

Note, in particular, that all coefficients are positive for large enough  $n$ .

2. The Elias gamma code is a universal code for integers  $k \geq 1$ . To encode  $k$ , let  $N = \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor$ , and define  $C(k) = 0^N(k)_2$ , where  $(k)_2$  is the expansion of  $k$  in base 2.

For example:  $C(1) = 1$ ,  $C(3) = 011$ ,  $C(5) = 00101$ ,  $C(20) = 000010100$ .

You can verify that no code is the prefix of another, hence  $C$  is prefix-free and uniquely decodable.

**The input.** Consider  $W \in \{0, 1\}^{\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}}$  generated by iid samples of a charged-coin, which gives 0 with probability  $p \geq \frac{1}{2}$  and 1 otherwise.

**The compression algorithm.** We want to combine Elias coding with runlength in order to code the prefix  $W_n$  of length  $n$  of  $W$ .

Write  $W = 0^{X_1}10^{X_2}1 \dots$  where  $X_i$  are the lengths of the successive runs of 0s. Note that the  $X_i$  are iid. We write  $X$  for an arbitrary  $X_i$ . We code the prefix  $W_n = 0^{X_1}1 \dots 0^{X_{R_n}}10^K$  by coding each run  $0^k1$  separately using  $c(0^k1) = C(k+1)$  for  $k \geq 0$  and, for the tail  $T_n = 0^K$ , we code the same as  $0^K1$ . The receiver knows he must discard the last 1 after decoding.

For example:  $c(001 \cdot 1 \cdot 00001 \cdot 00) = 011 \cdot 1 \cdot 00101 \cdot 011$ . Of course, the longer the runs, the better the compression, and this is what we want to quantify.

**The result.** We are going to prove that the expected rate of compression satisfies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}[|c(W_n)|]}{n} = (1-p) \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{2}{p} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j} \right).$$

- (a) Translate the decomposition into runs of 0s into an equation for

$$P(z, u) = \sum_{n, \ell \geq 0} \Pr(|c(W_n)| = \ell) z^n u^\ell,$$

involving  $A(z, u)$  and  $B(z, u)$ , the MGFs for a single run  $0^X1$  and a run of zeroes  $0^K$ .

- (b) Deduce that  $\mathbb{E}[|c(W_n)|] \sim D \times n$  where  $D = \frac{\mathbb{E}[|c(0^X1)|]}{\mathbb{E}[|0^X1|]}$  is the quotient of the expected length of the coding of one run, divided by the expected length of that run.

- (c) Simplify the constant to  $D = (1-p) \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{2}{p} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j} \right)$ .

- (d) **[Extra.]** Can you prove that  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j} \sim \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{1-p} \right)$  as  $p \rightarrow 1^-$ ?

**Response.** See Section 5.2 of <https://protondo.github.io/files/course-mpri-25/MPRI-7.pdf> which provides a more general analysis up to part (b). We now prove (c) and (d).

(c) In the current case we have  $\mathbb{E}[|c(0^X1)|] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^{k-1} (1-p) (2 \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor + 1)$  since  $2 \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor + 1 = |c(0^k1)|$ . We have  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor = \frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j}$ , because the RHS is the power-series (in  $p$ ) of the partial sums:

$$[p^n] \frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j} = \sum_{j: 2^j \leq n} 1 = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor.$$

Thus  $\mathbb{E}[|c(0^X 1)|] = 1 + \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j}$ . On the other hand,  $\mathbb{E}[|0^X 1|] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^{k-1}(1-p)k = \frac{1}{1-p}$ . Thus the formula follows.

(d) We begin from  $\frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor$ . Observe that  $\lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor = \log_2 k + O(1)$ , thus  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k \log_2 k + O(\frac{1}{1-p})$ .

We recall that the harmonic numbers  $H_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{j}$  satisfy  $H_k = \log k + O(1)$ . Thus we have  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor = \frac{1}{\log 2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k H_k + O(\frac{1}{1-p})$ . We recall<sup>1</sup> that  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k H_k = \frac{1}{1-p} \log\left(\frac{1}{1-p}\right)$  for  $|p| < 1$ . Thus we have

$$\frac{1}{1-p} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} p^{2^j} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p^k \lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor = \frac{1}{\log 2} \frac{1}{1-p} \log\left(\frac{1}{1-p}\right) + O(\frac{1}{1-p}),$$

and the result follows.

3. In this exercise we use complex-integration to prove that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} z^n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4z}},$$

for  $|z| < 1/4$ .

(a) Prove that  $F(z) \triangleq \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} z^n$  converges for  $|z| < \frac{1}{4}$ .

(b) Fix  $r > 0$ . Remark that  $\oint_{|u|=r} \frac{(1+u)^{2n}}{u^{n+1}} du = 2\pi \binom{2n}{n}$ . Use this to prove  $F(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4z}}$ .

(c) Deduce that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{1}{n+1} z^n = \frac{1-\sqrt{1-4z}}{2z}$ .

### Responses.

(a) We note that  $\binom{2n}{n} \leq \sum_j \binom{2n}{j} = 4^n$ , thus the coefficients are dominated by those of  $|4^n z^n|$  and the series converges absolutely for  $|z| < \frac{1}{4}$ .

(b) The first identity follows from the Binomial Theorem,  $[u^n](1+u)^{2n} = \binom{2n}{n}$  and Cauchy's Formula applied for the circle (the simplest case, which could be computed directly).

Consider  $|z| < 1/4$  and let  $r = 1$ . Then  $\frac{(1+r)^2}{r} |z| = 4|z| < 1$ . Thus  $|\frac{(1+u)^2}{u} z| \leq \frac{(1+r)^2}{r} |z| < 1$  and the series converges  $\sum \left(\frac{(1+u)^2}{u} z\right)^n$  converges uniformly. Integrating over  $|u| = r = 1$ , by the uniform convergence we may exchange sums and integrals:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} z^n &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \oint_{|u|=1} \frac{(1+u)^{2n}}{u^{n+1}} du \right) z^n \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{|u|=1} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{(1+u)^2}{u} z \right)^n \right) \frac{du}{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{|u|=1} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{(1+u)^2}{u} z} \frac{du}{u}. \end{aligned}$$

<sup>1</sup>Recall that  $\log \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum \frac{1}{k} x^k$  and so, for the partial sums, we have  $\frac{1}{1-x} \log \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum H_k x^k$ .

Now it all comes down to compute the latter integral. Cleaning out the denominators, we want to integrate  $u \mapsto \frac{1}{u-(1+u)^2z}$  over the circle  $|u| = 1$ . The denominator has two potential roots:

$$u_{\pm} = u_{\pm}(z) = \frac{1 - 2z \pm \sqrt{1 - 4z}}{2z}.$$

We remark, by the Newton relations for the roots of the polynomials, that  $u_+ \times u_- = 1$ , because these are roots of  $u^2 + (2 - 1/z)u + 1 = 0$ . Hence it follows that  $|u_+| \times |u_-| = 1$ . Moreover  $u_+ + u_- = 1/z - 2$ , whence  $|u_+| + |u_-| \geq 1/|z| - 2 > 2$  and it follows that at least one of the roots satisfies  $|u| > 1$ . By  $|u_+| \times |u_-| = 1$ , the other root must satisfy  $|u| < 1$ . Observe that  $|u_+| \rightarrow \infty$  as  $z \rightarrow 0$ , thus, by continuity of both roots, we deduce that  $|u_+| > 1$  and  $|u_-| < 1$  for every  $|z| < 1/4$ .

Write

$$\frac{1}{u - (1+u)^2z} = \frac{A}{u - u_-} + \frac{B}{u - u_+},$$

where  $A = A(z)$  and  $B = B(z)$  actually depend on  $z$ .

By Cauchy's Formula, since only  $u_-$  lies within the circle  $|u| = 1$ , we deduce

$$\oint_{|u|=1} \frac{du}{u - (1+u)^2z} = 2\pi i A, \quad A = \lim_{u \rightarrow u_-} \frac{u - u_-}{u - (1+u)^2z} = \frac{1}{(u - (1+u)^2z)'|_{u=u_-}}.$$

And we can verify that  $A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4z}}$ . Thus the formula follows.

(c) This part follows by noticing that, by integration of the series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} \frac{1}{n+1} z^n = \frac{1}{z} \int_0^z \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} u^n \right) du,$$

which is valid for  $|z| < 1/4$ , within the radius of convergence.

Since

$$\int_0^z \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{2n}{n} u^n \right) du = \int_0^z \frac{du}{\sqrt{1-4u}} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1-4z}}{2},$$

the result follows.