# Generating Functions ITT9131 Konkreetne Matemaatika

#### Chapter Seven

Domino Theory and Change Basic Maneuvers Solving Recurrences Special Generating Functions Convolutions Exponential Generating Function Dirichlet Generating Functions



# Contents

#### **1** Solving recurrences

Example: Fibonacci numbers revisited

#### 2 Partial fraction expansion

- Decomposition into Partial Fractions
- Partial Rational Expansion

#### 3 Solving recurrences

Example: A more-or-less random recurrence.



# Next section

#### **1** Solving recurrences

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Example: A more-or-less random recurrence.



Given a sequence  $\langle g_n\rangle$  that satisfies a given recurrence, we seek a closed form for  $g_n$  in terms of n.

#### "Algorithm"

- 1 Write down a single equation that expresses  $g_n$  in terms of other elements of the sequence. This equation should be valid for all integers n, assuming that  $g_{-1} = g_{-2} = \cdots = 0$ .
- 2 Multiply both sides of the equation by  $z^n$  and sum over all n. This gives, on the left, the sum  $\sum_n g_n z^n$ , which is the generating function G(z). The right-hand side should be manipulated so that it becomes some other expression involving G(z).
- 3 Solve the resulting equation, getting a closed form for G(z).
- 4 Expand G(z) into a power series and read off the coefficient of  $z^n$ ; this is a closed form for  $g_n$ .



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# Example: Fibonacci numbers revisited

Step 1 The recurrence

$$g_n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \leq 0; \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 1; \\ g_{n-1} + g_{n-2} & \text{if } n > 1; \end{cases}$$

can be represented by the single equation

$$g_n = g_{n-1} + g_{n-2} + [n = 1]$$

where  $n \in (-\infty, +\infty)$ .

This is because the "simple" Fibonacci recurrence  $g_n = g_{n-1} + g_{n-2}$ holds for every  $n \ge 2$  by construction, and for every  $n \le 0$  as by hypothesis  $g_n = 0$  if n < 0; but for n = 1 the left-hand side is 1 and the right-hand side is 0, so we need the correction summand [n = 1].



# Example: Fibonacci numbers revisited (2)

Step 2 For any n, multiply both sides of the equation by  $z^n$  ...

$$g_{-2}z^{-2} = g_{-3}z^{-2} + g_{-4}z^{-2} + [-2 = 1]z^{-2}$$

$$g_{-1}z^{-1} = g_{-2}z^{-1} + g_{-3}z^{-1} + [-1 = 1]z^{-1}$$

$$g_{0} = g_{-1} + g_{-2} + [0 = 1]$$

$$g_{1}z = g_{0}z + g_{-1}z + [1 = 1]z$$

$$g_{2}z^{2} = g_{1}z^{2} + g_{0}z^{2} + [2 = 1]z^{2}$$

$$g_{3}z^{3} = g_{2}z^{3} + g_{1}z^{3} + [3 = 1]z^{3}$$

... and sum over all *n*.

$$\sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n} = \sum_{n} g_{n-1} z^{n} + \sum_{n} g_{n-2} z^{n} + \sum_{n} [n=1] z^{n}$$



# Example: Fibonacci numbers revisited (3)

Step 3 Write down  $G(z) = \sum_n g_n z^n$  and transform

$$G(z) = \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n} = \sum_{n} g_{n-1} z^{n} + \sum_{n} g_{n-2} z^{n} + \sum_{n} [n=1] z^{n} =$$
  
=  $\sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n+1} + \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n+2} + z =$   
=  $zG(z) + z^{2}G(z) + z$ 

Solving the equation yields

$$G(z)=\frac{z}{1-z-z^2}$$

Step 4 Expansion the equation into power series  $G(z) = \sum g_n z^n$  gives us the solution (see next slides):

$$g_n = \frac{\Phi^n - \widehat{\Phi}^n}{\sqrt{5}}$$

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$$= \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n+1} + \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n+2} + z =$$
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# Motivation

A generating function is often in the form of a rational function

$$R(z)=\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)},$$

where P and Q are polynomials.

• Our goal is to find "partial fraction expansion" of R(z), i.e. represent R(z) in the form

$$R(z)=S(z)+T(z),$$

where S(z) has known expansion into the power series, and T(z) is a polynomial.

A good candidate for S(z) is a finite sum of functions like

$$S(z) = \frac{a_1}{(1-\rho_1 z)^{m_1+1}} + \frac{a_2}{(1-\rho_2 z)^{m_2+1}} + \dots + \frac{a_\ell}{(1-\rho_\ell z)^{m_\ell+1}}$$

We have proven the relation

$$\frac{a}{(1-\rho z)^{m+1}} = \sum_{n\geq 0} \binom{m+n}{m} a \rho^n z^n$$

• Hence, the coefficient of  $z^n$  in expansion of S(z) is

$$s_n = a_1 \binom{m_1 + n}{m_1} \rho_1^n + a_2 \binom{m_2 + n}{m_2} \rho_2^n + \cdots + a_\ell \binom{m_\ell + n}{m_\ell} \rho_\ell^n$$



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# Step 1: Finding $\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_m$

Suppose Q(z) has the form

$$Q(z)=1+q_1z+q_2z^2+\cdots+q_mz^m$$
, where  $q_m
eq 0$ .

The "reflected" polynomial  $Q^R$  has a relation to Q:

$$Q^{R}(z) = z^{m} + q_{1}z^{m-1} + q_{2}z^{m-2} + \dots + q_{m-1}z + q_{m}$$
$$= z^{m} \left( 1 + q_{1}\frac{1}{z} + q_{2}\frac{1}{z^{2}} + \dots + q_{m-1}\frac{1}{z^{m-1}} + q_{m}\frac{1}{z^{m}} \right)$$
$$= z^{m}Q\left(\frac{1}{z}\right)$$

If  $\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_m$  are roots of  $Q^R$ , then  $(z - \rho_i)|Q^R(z)$ :

$$Q^{R}(z) = (z - \rho_1)(z - \rho_2) \cdots (z - \rho_m)$$

Then  $(1-\rho_i z)|Q(z)|$ 

$$Q(z) = z^{m}(\frac{1}{z} - \rho_{1})(\frac{1}{z} - \rho_{2})\cdots(\frac{1}{z} - \rho_{m}) = (1 - \rho_{1}z)(1 - \rho_{2}z)\cdots(1 - \rho_{m}z)$$



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# Step 1: Finding $\rho_1, \rho_2, \dots, \rho_m$ (2)

#### In all, we have proven

#### Lemma

$$Q^{R}(z) = (z - \rho_{1})(z - \rho_{2}) \cdots (z - \rho_{m}) \text{ iff } Q(z) = (1 - \rho_{1}z)(1 - \rho_{2}z) \cdots (1 - \rho_{m}z)$$

#### Example: $Q(z) = 1 - z - z^2$

$$Q^R(z) = z^2 - z - 1$$

This  $Q^{R}(z)$  has roots

$$z_1 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} = \Phi$$
 and  $z_2 = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} = \widehat{\Phi}$ 

Therefore  $Q^R(z) = (z - \Phi)(z - \widehat{\Phi})$  and  $Q(z) = (1 - \Phi z)(1 - \widehat{\Phi} z)$ .



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Example: A more-or-less random recurrence.



# Step 2: Decomposition into Partial Fractions

If the following conditions are valid for the fraction  $\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)}$ :

all roots of  $Q^R(z)$  are distinct (we denote these roots as  $\rho_1, \rho_2, \ldots$ ),

• deg 
$$P(z) < \deg Q(z) = \ell$$
,

then the denominator is factorizable as  $Q(z)=a_0(1-z
ho_1)\cdots(1-z
ho_\ell)$  and the fraction can be expanded as

$$\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{A_1}{1 - \rho_1 z} + \frac{A_2}{1 - \rho_1 z} + \dots + \frac{A_\ell}{1 - \rho_\ell z}.$$
 (1)

where  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_\ell$  are constants.

The constants  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_\ell$  can be found as a solution of the system of linear equations defined by the equality (1).



# Example: Decomposition of $\frac{z^2-3z+28}{6z^3-5z^2-2z+1}$

- We have here  $P(z) = z^2 3z + 28$  and  $Q(z) = 6z^3 5z^2 2z + 1$ ;
- Reflected polynomial  $Q^{R}(z) = z^{3} 2z^{3} 5z + 6 = (z-1)(z+2)(z-3)$  and Q(z) = (1-z)(1+2z)(1-3z).

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P_1(z)}{Q(z)} &= \frac{A}{1-z} + \frac{B}{1+2z} + \frac{C}{1-3z} = \\ &= \frac{A(1+2z)(1-3z) + B(1-z)(1-3z) + C(1-z)(1+2z)}{Q(z)} = \\ &= \frac{(-6A+3B-2C)z^2 + (-A-4B+C)z + (A+B+C)}{Q(z)} \end{aligned}$$

Comparing the numerator of this fraction with the polynomial  $P_1(z)$  leads to the system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} -6A + 3B - 2C &= 1\\ -A - 4B + C &= -3\\ A + B + C &= 28 \end{cases}$$



Example 
$$\frac{z^2-3z+28}{6z^3-5z^2-2z+1}$$
 (continuation)

The solution of the system is

$$A = -\frac{13}{3}$$
  $B = \frac{119}{15}$   $C = \frac{122}{5}$ .

So, we have

$$S(z) = \frac{-13}{3(1-z)} + \frac{119}{15(1+2z)} + \frac{122}{5(1-3z)}$$

and the power series  $S(z) = \sum_{n \geqslant 0} s_n z^n$ , where the coefficient

$$s_n = -\frac{13}{3} + \frac{119}{15}(-2)^n + \frac{122}{5}3^n$$



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# Step 2 (alternative): Partial Rational Expansion

#### Theorem 1 (for Distinct Roots)

If R(z) = P(z)/Q(z) is the generating function for the sequence  $\langle r_n \rangle$ , where  $Q(z) = (1 - \rho_1 z)(1 - \rho_2 z) \cdots (1 - \rho_\ell z)$ , and the numbers  $(\rho_1, \dots, \rho_\ell)$  are distinct, and if P(z) is a polynomial of degree less than  $\ell$ , then

$$r_n = a_1 \rho_1^n + a_2 \rho_2^n + \dots + a_\ell \rho_\ell^n$$
, where  $a_k = \frac{-\rho_k P(1/\rho_k)}{Q'(1/\rho_k)}$ 

#### Sketch of proof.

- We show that R(z) = S(z) for  $S(z) = \frac{\partial 1}{1 \rho_1 z} + \dots + \frac{\partial \ell}{1 \rho_\ell z}$  and any  $z \neq \alpha_k = 1/\rho_k$  (only the points where R(z) might be equal to infinity).
- L'Hôpital's Rule is used



# Recalling l'Hôpital's Rule

If either 
$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = 0$$
 or  $\lim_{x \to a} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \to a} |g(x)| = \infty$   
and if  $\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists, then  
$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$



# Step 2: Partial Rational Expansion (2)

#### Continuation of the proof.

- T(z) = R(z) S(z) is a rational function of z and it suffices to show that  $\lim_{z \to \alpha_k} (z \alpha_k) T(z) = 0.$
- Thus we need to prove the following equality

$$\lim_{z\to\alpha_k}(z-\alpha_k)R(z)=\lim_{z\to\alpha_k}(z-\alpha_k)S(z).$$

Due to

$$\frac{a_k(z-\alpha_k)}{1-\rho_j z}=\frac{a_k(z-\frac{1}{\rho_k})}{1-\rho_j z}=\frac{-a_k(1-\rho_k z)}{\rho_k(1-\rho_j z)}\to 0, \text{ if } k\neq j \text{ and } z\to \alpha_k$$

the right-hand side is

$$\lim_{z \to \alpha_k} (z - \alpha_k) S(z) = \lim_{z \to \alpha_k} (z - \alpha_k) \frac{a_k(z - \alpha_k)}{1 - \rho_k z} = \frac{-a_k}{\rho_k} = \frac{P(1/\rho_k)}{Q'(1/\rho_k)}$$





# Step 2: Partial Rational Expansion (3)

#### Continuation of the proof.

The left-hand side limit is

$$\lim_{z \to \alpha_k} (z - \alpha_k) R(z) = \lim_{z \to \alpha_k} (z - \alpha_k) \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = P(\alpha_k) \lim_{z \to \alpha_k} \frac{z - \alpha_k}{Q(z)} = \frac{P(\alpha_k)}{Q'(\alpha_k)} = \frac{P(1/\rho_k)}{Q'(1/\rho_k)}$$

by l'Hôpital's rule

Q.E.D.



# General Expansion Theorem for Rational Generating Functions.

#### Theorem 2 (for possibly Multiple Roots)

If R(z) = P(z)/Q(z) is the generating function for the sequence  $\langle r_n \rangle$ , where  $Q(z) = (1 - \rho_1 z)^{d_1} \cdots (1 - \rho_\ell z)^{d_\ell}$  and the numbers  $\rho_1, \dots, \rho_\ell$  are distinct, and if P(z) is a polynomial of degree less than  $d = d_1 + \dots + d_\ell$ , then

$$r_n = f_1(n)\rho_1^n + \dots + f_\ell(n)\rho_\ell^n, \quad \text{ for all } \quad n \ge 0,$$

where each  $f_k(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $d_k - 1$  with leading coefficient

$$a_{k} = \frac{(-\rho_{k})^{d_{k}} P(1/\rho_{k}) d_{k}}{Q^{(d_{k})}(1/\rho_{k})} = \frac{P(1/\rho_{k})}{(d_{k}-1)! \prod_{j \neq k} (1-\rho_{j}/\rho_{k})^{d_{j}}}$$

Proof: (omitted) by induction on  $d = d_1 + \ldots + d_\ell$ .



# Warmup: What if deg $P \ge \deg Q$ ?

#### The problem

- The hypotheses of the Rational Expansion Theorem include that the degree of the numerator be smaller than that of the denominator.
- What if it is not so?



# Warmup: What if deg $P \ge \deg Q$ ?

#### The problem

- The hypotheses of the Rational Expansion Theorem include that the degree of the numerator be smaller than that of the denominator.
- What if it is not so?

#### Answer: It is a false problem!

If deg  $P \ge \deg Q$ , then we can do *polynomial division* and uniquely determine two polynomials S(z), R(z) such that:

•  $\deg R < \deg Q;$ 

$$P(z) = Q(z) \cdot S(z) + R(z).$$

Then

$$\frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = S(z) + \frac{R(z)}{Q(z)} :$$

the first summand only influences finitely many coefficients, and on the second one the Rational Expansion Theorem can be applied.



# Example: Fibonacci numbers revisited once more(2)

Step 3 Solving the equation

$$G(z) = \frac{z}{1-z-z^2}$$

Step 4 Expand the (rational) equation G(z) = P(z)/Q(z) for P(z) = z and  $Q(z) = 1 - z - z^2$ :

From the example above we know that  $Q(z) = (1 - \Phi z)(1 - \widehat{\Phi} z)$ 

• As 
$$Q'(z) = -1 - 2z$$
, we have

$$\frac{-\Phi P(1/\Phi)}{Q'(1/\Phi)} = \frac{-1}{-1 - 2/\Phi} = \frac{\Phi}{\Phi + 2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

and

$$\frac{-\widehat{\Phi}P(1/\widehat{\Phi})}{Q'(1/\widehat{\Phi})} = \frac{\widehat{\Phi}}{\widehat{\Phi}+2} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Theorem 1 gives us

$$g_n = \frac{\Phi^n - \widehat{\Phi}^n}{\sqrt{5}}$$



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#### **3** Solving recurrences

Example: A more-or-less random recurrence.



# Next subsection

#### 1 Solving recurrences

Example: Fibonacci numbers revisited

#### 2 Partial fraction expansion

- Decomposition into Partial Fractions
- Partial Rational Expansion

#### 3 Solving recurrences

Example: A more-or-less random recurrence.



Step 1 Given recurrence

$$g_n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n < 0; \\ 1, & \text{if } 0 \leq n < 2; \\ g_{n-1} + 2g_{n-2} + (-1)^n & \text{if } 2 \leq n; \end{cases}$$

can be represented by the single equation

$$g_n = g_{n-1} + 2g_{n-2} + (-1)^n [n \ge 0] + [n = 1].$$



# Example: A more-or-less random recurrence (2)

Step 2 Write down  $G(z) = \sum_n g_n z^n$  and transform

$$G(z) = \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n} = \sum_{n} g_{n-1} z^{n} + 2 \sum_{n} g_{n-2} z^{n} + \sum_{n \ge 0} (-1)^{n} z^{n} + \sum_{n} [n=1] z^{n} =$$
$$= \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n+1} + 2 \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n+2} + \frac{1}{1+z} + z =$$
$$= zG(z) + 2z^{2}G(z) + \frac{1+z+z^{2}}{1+z}$$

Step 3 Solving the equation

$$G(z) = \frac{1+z+z^2}{(1-z-2z^2)(1+z)} = \frac{1+z+z^2}{(1-2z)(1+z)^2}$$



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# Example: A more-or-less random recurrence (3)

Step 4 Expand the (rational) equation G(z) = P(z)/Q(z) for  $P(z) = 1 + z + z^2$  and  $Q(z) = (1-2z)(1+z)^2$ :

Theorem 2 gives us for some constant c:

$$g_n = a_1 2^n + (a_2 n + c)(-1)^n$$
,

where

and

If R(z) = P(z)/Q(z) the generating function for the sequence  $\langle r_n \rangle$ , where  $Q(z) = (1-\rho_1 z)^{\phi_1} \cdots (1-\rho_\ell z)^{\phi_\ell}$  and the numbers  $(\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_\ell)$  are distinct, and if P(z) is a polynomial of degree less than  $d_1 + \ldots + d_\ell$ , then

 $r_n = f_1(n)\rho_1^n + \dots + f_\ell(n)\rho_\ell^n, \quad \text{ for all } \quad n \geqslant 0,$ 

where each  $f_k(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $d_k - 1$  with a leading coefficient

$$a_k = \frac{(-\rho_k)^{d_k} P(1/\rho_k) d_k}{Q^{(d_k)}(1/\rho_k)} = \frac{P(1/\rho_k)}{(d_k - 1)! \prod_{j \neq k} (1 - \rho_j / \rho_k)^{d_j}}$$

$$a_1 = \frac{P(1/2)}{0!(1+1/2)^2} = \frac{4(1+1/2+1/4)}{9} = \frac{7}{9}$$

$$a_2 = \frac{P(-1)}{1!(1+2)} = \frac{1+1-1}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Special case n = 0 implies 1 = g<sub>0</sub> = <sup>7</sup>/<sub>9</sub> + c that gives c = 1 - <sup>7</sup>/<sub>9</sub> = <sup>2</sup>/<sub>9</sub>.
 The answer is

$$g_n = \frac{7}{9}2^n + \left(\frac{1}{3}n + \frac{2}{9}\right)(-1)^n.$$

# Decomposition into Partial Fractions

The same function:  $G(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{1+z+z^2}{(1-2z)(1+z)^2}$ 

Decompose it as

$$G(z) = \frac{A}{1-2z} + \frac{B}{1+z} + \frac{C}{(1+z)^2}$$

Expand

$$\begin{aligned} & 5(z) = \frac{A}{1-2z} + \frac{B}{1+z} + \frac{C}{(1+z)^2} = \\ & = \frac{A(1+z)^2 + B(1-2z)(1+z) + C(1-2z)}{(1-2z)(1+z)^2} = \\ & = \frac{(A-2B)z^2 + (2A-B-2C)z + A + B + C}{(1-2z)(1+z)^2} \end{aligned}$$

continues ...



# Decomposition into Partial Fractions (2)

The function:  $G(z) = \frac{P(z)}{Q(z)} = \frac{1+z+z^2}{(1-2z)(1+z)^2}$ 

System of equations:

$$\begin{cases} A - 2B &= 1\\ 2A - B - 2C &= 1\\ A + B + C &= 1 \end{cases}$$

• The solution: 
$$A = \frac{7}{9}, B = -\frac{1}{9}, C = \frac{1}{3}$$

• The result of decomposition  $G(z) = \frac{7}{9(1-2z)} - \frac{1}{9(1+z)} + \frac{1}{3(1+z)^2}$ 

using the basic identity

$$\frac{a}{(1-\rho z)^k} = \sum_{n \ge 0} \binom{n+k-1}{k-1} a \rho^n z^n,$$

we get the power series

$$G(z) = \sum_{n \ge 0} \left[ \frac{7}{9} 2^n - \frac{1}{9} (-1)^n + \frac{n+1}{3} (-1)^n \right] z^n = \sum_{n \ge 0} g_n z^n,$$

where

$$g_n = \frac{7}{9}2^n + \left(\frac{1}{3}n + \frac{2}{9}\right)(-1)^n$$



# Example 3: Usage of derivatives

Step 1 Given recurrence

$$g_n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n < 0; \\ 1, & \text{if } n = 0; \\ \frac{2}{n}g_{n-2}, & \text{if } n > 0; \end{cases}$$

can be represented by the single equation

$$g_n = \frac{2}{n}g_{n-2} + [n=0].$$

Some	valu	es:									
n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
gn	1	0	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{6}$	0	$\frac{1}{24}$	0	$\frac{1}{120}$

Step 2 Write down  $G(z) = \sum_{n} g_n z^n$  and its first derivative

$$G(z) = \sum_{n} g_{n} z^{n} = \sum_{n} [n=0] z^{n} + 2 \sum_{n} \frac{g_{n-2}}{n} z^{n} = 1 + 2 \sum_{n} \frac{g_{n-2}}{n} z^{n}$$

$$G'(z) = 2\sum_{n} \frac{g_{n-2} \cdot n}{n} z^{n-1} = 2z \sum_{n} g_{n-2} z^{n-2} = 2z G(z)$$



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# Example 3: Usage of derivatives (2)

Step 3 We need to solve the differential equation G'(z) = 2zG(z).

We rewrite the equation as

$$\frac{dG(z)}{dz} = 2zG(z)$$

• By treating G(z) as it was another variable, we further rewrite:

$$\frac{dG(z)}{G(z)} = 2zdz$$

(Such differential equations are called separable, because they can be solved by "separating the variables".)

By equating the indefinite integrals, we get:

$$\ln G(z) = z^2 + \overline{C}$$

By taking exponentials, we obtain:

$$G(z) = Ce^{z^2}$$
, where  $C = e^{\overline{C}}$ 

• By applying  $G(0) = g_0 = 1$  we get C = 1. In conclusion:  $G(z) = e^{z^2}$ .



# Example 3: Usage of derivatives (3)

Step 4 Considering that  $e^z = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{1}{n!} z^n$ , and denoting  $u = z^2$ , we get

$$G(z) = e^{z^2} = e^u = \sum \frac{1}{n!} u^n$$
$$= \sum \frac{1}{n!} (z^2)^n = \sum \frac{1}{n!} z^{2n}$$
$$= \sum \frac{1}{(\frac{1}{2})!} [n \text{ is even}] z^n$$

To conclude

$$g_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{k!}, & \text{if } n = 2k, k \in \mathbb{N}; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Q.E.D.



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