

# Enumerative Combinatorics 2: Formal power series

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Probably you recognised in the last chapter a few things from analysis, such as the exponential and geometric series; you may know from complex analysis that convergent power series have all the nice properties one could wish. But there are reasons for considering non-convergent power series, as the following example shows.

Recall the generating function for the factorials:

$$F(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} n!x^n,$$

which converges nowhere. Now consider the following problem. A permutation of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  is said to be *connected* if there is no number  $m$  with  $1 \leq m \leq n-1$  such that the permutation maps  $\{1, \dots, m\}$  to itself. Let  $C_n$  be the number of connected permutations of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ . Any permutation is composed of a connected permutation on an initial interval and an arbitrary permutation of the remainder; so

$$n! = \sum_{m=1}^n C_m(n-m)!.$$

Hence, if

$$G(x) = 1 - \sum_{n \geq 1} C_n x^n,$$

we have  $F(x)G(x) = 1$ , and so  $G(x) = 1/F(x)$ .

Fortunately we can do everything that we require for combinatorics (except some asymptotic analysis) without assuming any convergence properties.

## 2.1 Formal power series

Let  $R$  be a commutative ring with identity. A *formal power series* over  $R$  is, formally, an infinite sequence  $(r_0, r_1, r_2, \dots)$  of elements of  $R$ ; but we always represent it in the suggestive form

$$r_0 + r_1x + r_2x^2 + \dots = \sum_{n \geq 0} r_n x^n.$$

We denote the set of all formal power series by  $R[[x]]$ .

The set  $R[[x]]$  has a lot of structure: there are many things we can do with formal power series. All we require of any operations is that they only require adding or multiplying finitely many elements of  $R$ . No analytic properties such as convergence of infinite sums or products are required to hold in  $R$ .

- (a) *Addition*: We add two formal power series term-by-term.
- (b) *Multiplication*: The rule for multiplication of formal power series, like that of matrices, looks unnatural but is really the obvious thing: we multiply powers of  $x$  by adding the exponents, and then just gather up the terms contributing to a fixed power. Thus

$$\left( \sum a_n x^n \right) \cdot \left( \sum b_n x^n \right) = \sum c_n x^n,$$

where

$$c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}.$$

Note that to produce a term of the product, only finitely many additions and multiplications are required.

- (c) *Infinite sums and products*: These are not always defined. Suppose, for example, that  $A^{(i)}(x)$  are formal power series for  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ; assume that the first non-zero coefficient in  $A^{(i)}(x)$  is the coefficient of  $x^{n_i}$ , where  $n_i \rightarrow \infty$  as  $i \rightarrow \infty$ . Then, to work out the coefficient of  $x^n$  in the infinite sum, we only need the finitely many series  $A^{(i)}(x)$  for which  $n_i \leq n$ . Similarly, the product of infinitely many series  $B^{(i)}$  is defined provided that  $B^{(i)}(x) = 1 + A^{(i)}(x)$ , where  $A^{(i)}$  satisfy the condition just described.

- (d) *Substitution:* Let  $B(x)$  be a formal power series with constant term zero. Then, for any formal power series  $A(x)$ , the series  $A(B(x))$  obtained by substituting  $B(x)$  for  $x$  in  $A(x)$  is defined. For, if  $A(x) = \sum a_n x^n$ , then  $A(B(x)) = \sum a_n B(x)^n$ , and  $B(x)^n$  has no terms in  $x^k$  for  $k < n$ .
- (e) *Differentiation:* of formal power series is always defined; no limiting process is required. The derivative of  $\sum a_n x^n$  is  $\sum n a_n x^{n-1}$ , or alternatively,  $\sum (n+1) a_{n+1} x^n$ .
- (f) *Negative powers:* We can extend the notion of formal power series to *formal Laurent series*, which are allowed to have finitely many negative terms:

$$\sum_{n \geq -m} a_n x^n.$$

Infinitely many negative terms would not work since multiplication would then require infinitely many arithmetic operations in  $R$ .

- (g) *Multivariate formal power series:* We do not have to start again from scratch to define series in several variables. For  $R[[x]]$  is a commutative ring with identity, and so  $R[[x, y]]$  can be defined as the set of formal power series in  $y$  over  $R[[x]]$ .

As hinted above,  $R[[x]]$  is indeed a commutative ring with identity: verifying the axioms is straightforward but tedious, and I will just assume this. With the operation of differentiation it is a *differential ring*.

Recall that a *unit* in a ring is an element with a multiplicative inverse. The units in  $R[[x]]$  are easy to describe:

**Proposition 2.1** *The formal power series  $\sum r_n x^n$  is a unit in  $R[[x]]$  if and only if  $r_0$  is a unit in  $R$ .*

**Proof** If  $(\sum r_n x^n)(\sum s_n x^n) = 1$ , then looking at the constant term we see that  $r_0 s_0 = 1$ , so  $r_0$  is a unit.

Conversely, suppose that  $r_0 s_0 = 1$ . Considering the coefficient of  $x^n$  in the above equation with  $n > 0$ , we see that

$$\sum_{k=0}^n r_k s_{n-k} = 0,$$

so we can find the coefficients  $s_n$  recursively:

$$s_n = -s_0 \left( \sum_{k=1}^n r_k s_{n-k} \right).$$

This argument shows the very close connection between finding inverses in  $R[[x]]$  and solving linear recurrence relations.

## 2.2 Example: partitions

We are considering partitions of a number  $n$ , rather than of a set, here. A *partition* of  $n$  is an expression for  $n$  as a sum of positive integers arranged in non-increasing order; so the five partitions of 4 are

$$4 = 3 + 1 = 2 + 2 = 2 + 1 + 1 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1.$$

Let  $p(n)$  be the number of partitions of  $n$ .

### Theorem 2.2 (Euler's Pentagonal Numbers Theorem)

$$p(n) = \sum_{k \geq 1} (-1)^{k-1} (p(n - k(3k - 1)/2) + p(n - k(3k + 1)/2)),$$

where the sum contains all terms where the argument  $n - k(3k \pm 1)/2$  is non-negative.

This is a very efficient recurrence relation for  $p(n)$ , allowing it to be computed with only about  $\sqrt{n}$  arithmetic operations if smaller values are known. For example, if we know

$$p(0) = 1, \quad p(1) = 1, \quad p(2) = 2, \quad p(3) = 3, \quad p(4) = 5,$$

then we find  $p(5) = p(4) + p(3) - p(0) = 7$ ,  $p(6) = p(5) + p(4) - p(1) = 11$ , and so on.

I will give a brief sketch of the proof.

**Step 1:** The generating function.

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} p(n)x^n = \prod_{k \geq 1} (1 - x^k)^{-1}.$$

For on the right, we have the product of geometric series  $1 + x^k + x^{2k} + \dots$ , and the coefficient of  $x^n$  is the number of ways of writing  $n = \sum k a_k$ , which is just  $p(n)$ .

**Step 2:** The inverse of the generating function. We need to find

$$\prod_{k \geq 1} (1 - x^k).$$

The coefficient of  $x^n$  in this product is obtained from the expressions for  $n$  as a sum of *distinct* positive integers, where sums with an even number of terms contribute  $+1$  and sums with an odd number contribute  $-1$ . For example,

$$9 = 8 + 1 = 7 + 2 = 6 + 3 = 5 + 4 = 6 + 2 + 1 = 5 + 3 + 1 = 4 + 3 + 2,$$

so there are four sums with an even number of terms and four with an odd number of terms, and so the coefficient is zero.

**Step 3:** Pentagonal numbers appear. It turns out that the following is true:

The numbers of expressions for  $n$  as the sum of an even or an odd number of distinct positive integers are equal for all  $n$  except those of the form  $k(3k \pm 1)/2$ , for which the even expressions exceed the odd ones by one if  $k$  is even, and *vice versa* if  $k$  is odd.

This requires some ingenuity, and I do not give the proof here.

This shows that the expression in Step 2 is equal to

$$1 + \sum_{k \geq 1} (-1)^k (x^{k(3k+1)/2} + x^{k(3k-1)/2}),$$

and we immediately obtain the required recurrence relation.

## Exercises

1. Suppose that  $R$  is a field. Show that  $R[[x]]$  has a unique maximal ideal, consisting of the formal power series with constant term zero. Describe all the ideals of  $R[[x]]$ .

2. Suppose that  $A(x)$ ,  $B(x)$  and  $C(x)$  are the exponential generating functions of sequences  $(a_n)$ ,  $(b_n)$  and  $(c_n)$  respectively. Show that  $A(x)B(x) = C(x)$  if and only if

$$c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a_k b_{n-k}.$$

3. (a) Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence of integers, and  $(b_n)$  the sequence of partial sums of  $(a_n)$  (in other words,  $b_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i$ ). Suppose that the generating function for  $(a_n)$  is  $A(x)$ . Show that the generating function for  $(b_n)$  is  $A(x)/(1-x)$ .

(b) Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence of integers, and let  $c_n = na_n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ . Suppose that the generating function for  $(a_n)$  is  $A(x)$ . Show that the generating function for  $(c_n)$  is  $x(d/dx)A(x)$ . What is the generating function for the sequence  $(n^2a_n)$ ?

(c) Use the preceding parts of this exercise to find the generating function for the sequence whose  $n$ th term is  $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2$ , and hence find a formula for the sum of the first  $n$  squares.