

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.