

Remark

$$\text{Since } \prod_{n \geq 1} \frac{1}{1-x^n} = \sum_{n \geq 0} p(n)x^n$$

$$\prod_{n \geq 1} (1-x^n) = 1-x-x^2+x^5+x^7-x^{12}-x^{15}+\dots$$

when we multiply them and compare coeffs of x^n we get

$$0 = p(n) - p(n-1) - p(n-2) + p(n-5) + p(n-7) - p(n-11)\dots$$

This recurrence is the best way to date to compute

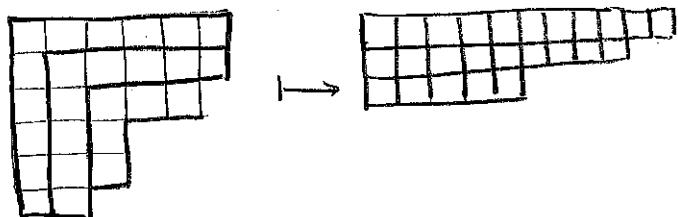
$p(1), p(2), \dots$. There are other ways of computing

$$p(n) \sim e^{\frac{\pi i \sqrt{2n}}{3}} / 4\sqrt{3} n$$

(Compare with $n! \sim \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \sqrt{2\pi n}$)

Prop The # of self-conjugate partitions of n equals the # of partitions of n into odd parts

PF



$$6+6+5+3+3+2 \mapsto 11+9+5$$

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Formal Power Series

Now that we've played enough with formal power series to know what we might need to worry about, let's discuss why we don't need to worry.

Let $R = \text{comm. ring}$. (For us usually $R = \mathbb{R}$ or \mathbb{C})

A formal power series is a sequence

$$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) \text{ which we write } "a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots" A(x)$$

$(a_i \in R)$

$$\text{Write } a_n = [x^n] A(x)$$

The ring of formal power series $R[[x]]$ has ops

$$+ : (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} + (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = (a_n + b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

$$\cdot : (a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \cdot (b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} = (a_0 b_0 + a_1 b_1 + \dots + a_n b_0)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

(consistent with our power series notation)

We have $0 = (0, 0, \dots)$, $1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$

Easy: assoc. of $+$, of \cdot .

comm. of $+$, of \cdot

distrib of $+$, \cdot

See: EC1, Sec 1.1

Ivan Niven "Formal Power Series" (Amer Math Monthly) 44

There is a distinction between formal and analytic power series, but:

Principle: Any identity of power series which

- holds analytically for small enough $|x|$
- makes sense for formal power series

also holds in the ring of formal power series.

This is clearer through some example.

$$\text{Ex. 1. } \sum_{n \geq 0} r^n x^n = \frac{1}{1-rx}$$

$$\text{Here, this means } \left(\sum_{n \geq 0} r^n x^n \right) (1-rx) = 1 \text{ or}$$

formal power series. But

$$[x^n] \text{LHS} = \begin{cases} r^n + r^{n+1}(-r) = 0 & n \geq 1 \\ 1 & n=0 \end{cases} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\text{Ex. 2. } \sum_{n \geq 0} x^n / n! \sum_{n \geq 0} (-x)^n / n! = 1$$

Alg. This makes sense in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$; it is

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \frac{(-1)^{n-k}}{(n-k)!} = \begin{cases} 0 & n \geq 1 \\ 1 & n=0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{This follows from } (1-i)^n = \begin{cases} 1 & n \geq 1 \\ 0 & n=0 \end{cases}$$

An. We can also invoke analysis; this says

$$e^x e^{-x} = 1$$

which is true for all $x \in \mathbb{C}$. Then just use:

Thm: If two power series represent the same function in a neighbourhood of 0, their coeffs are equal.

Ex 3 (A non-example)

The analytic identity $e^{x+i} = e \cdot e^x$ does not give an identity in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$, because

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} (x+i)^n / n! \text{ is not a formal power series.}$$

The coeff. of x^N has infinitely many contributions!

To make sense of (some) infinite sums need to define convergence in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$.

Say $F_1(x), F_2(x), \dots \rightarrow F(x)$

if for any n , there exists N such that

$$[x^n] F_N(x) = [x^n] F_{N+1}(x) = \dots = [x^n] F(x).$$

Let $\deg F(x) = \min n$ s.t. $[x^n] F(x) \neq 0$

Prop $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} A_j(x)$ converges $\iff \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \deg A_j(x) = \infty$

So: $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(x+i)^n}{n!}$ doesn't, $\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(x+A(x))^n}{n!}$ does.

So: If $F(x), G(x) \in \mathbb{R}[[x]]$, we can define

$$F(G(x)) = \sum_{n \geq 0} f_n \left(\sum_{m \geq 0} g_m x^m \right)^n \quad \text{iff } g_0 = G(0) = 0.$$

Prop. $\prod_{j \geq 0} (1 + A_j(x))$ converges $\Leftrightarrow \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \deg A_j(x) = \infty$
 $(A_j(0) = 0)$

Ex 4 We showed

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} P_{sk}(n) x^n = \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{1-x^i} \quad (1)$$

and concluded

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} P(n) x^n = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x^i} = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} (1 + \underbrace{x^i + x^{2i} + \dots}_{\deg = i}) \quad (2)$$

The RHS is defined and what we are doing
is taking the limit of (1) as $k \rightarrow \infty$; the
coeffs stabilize to those of (2).

Prop $R[[x]]$ is an integral domain
if R is an integral domain

Pf If $A(x)B(x) = 0$ where $A(x) = a_m x^m + \dots$

$$B(x) = b_n x^n + \dots$$

$$\text{then } A(x)B(x) = a_m b_n x^{m+n} + \dots$$

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Ex 5 The Catalan GF satisfied

$$x C(x)^2 = C(x) - 1$$

We did

$$4x^2 C(x)^2 - 4x C(x) + 1 = 1 - 4x$$

$$[1 - 2x C(x)]^2 = 1 - 4x$$

Now:

$$(1+x)^r := \sum_{n \geq 0} \binom{r}{n} x^n$$

satisfies

$$[(1-4x)^{1/2}]^2 = 1-4x$$

since it satisfies it for $|x| < 1/4$. Then

$$[1 - 2x C(x)]^2 = [(1-4x)^{1/2}]^2$$

Now, $A^2 = B^2 \Rightarrow (A-B)(A+B) = 0 \Rightarrow A = \pm B$.

Since they both have $C(x^0) = 1$,

$$1 - 2x C(x) = (1-4x)^{1/2}$$

"Calculus": Define $(\sum_{n \geq 0} f_n x^n)' = \sum_{n \geq 0} (n+1) f_n x^n$

$$(FG)' = F'G + FG'$$

$$(F(G(x)))' = F'(G(x))G'(x) \quad (G(0)=0)$$

So, e.g. if $G'(x) = F'(x)/F(x)$ $G(0)=0$ $F(0)=1$

$$G'(x) = [\log F(x)]'$$

$$G(x) = \log F(x) \rightarrow F(x) = e^{G(x)}$$

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