

1)

9/8/2015

Math 8668 Fall 2015 Vic Reimer
Combinatorial Theory - Intro Grad Combinatorics 1st semester

- SYLLABUS issues:
- ① Office hours
 - ② Makeups for Nov. 16, 18, 20 (M, W, F)
 - ③ Grading - show up, ask questions, do some HW!

Text: Stanley Enum. Comb. Vol 1.
 (where HW comes from)

I'll borrow heavily from Ardila's handbook chapter (on syllabus), just Part I. (beautiful!)

We'll count combinatorial objects

(e.g. subsets, multisets, partitions of numbers & sets, compositions, graphs, trees, ...)

but also pay attention to natural structures they carry, most often partially ordered set structures (poset)

§1.1 What is a good answer for a counting question?

Some are better than others, but different answers can have different advantages...

EXAMPLE (Ardila §1.1)

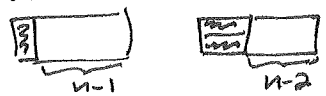


Let $a_n = \#$ of tilings of a $2 \times n$ rectangle by dominoes. What is a_n ?

n	a_n	rectangle	tilings	expected fraction of tiles that are vertical	expected fraction of vertical tiles
0	1			0?	0
1	1	▢	▢	1	$\frac{1}{1} = 1$
2	2	▢▢	▢▢, ▢▢	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{2+0}{2} = 1$
3	3	▢▢▢	▢▢▢, ▢▢▢, ▢▢▢	$\frac{5}{9}$	$\frac{3+1+1}{3} = \frac{5}{3}$
4	5	▢▢▢▢	▢▢▢▢, ▢▢▢▢, ▢▢▢▢, ▢▢▢▢, ▢▢▢▢	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{4+2+2+2+0}{5} = 2$

(2)

① Recurrence: $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, and $a_0 = a_1 = 1$

\uparrow counts \uparrow counts


(compare with Fibonacci recurrence $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$ and $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$)

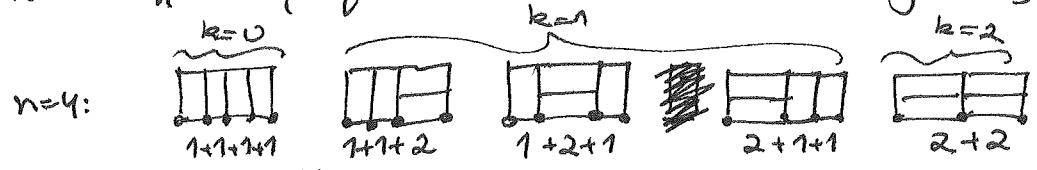
n	a_n	F_n
0	1	0
1	1	1
2	2	1
3	3	2
4	5	3
5	8	5
6	13	8

and realize $a_n = F_{n+1}$

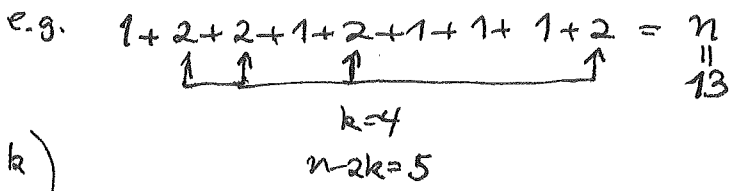
It will take a while to compute a_{1000} this way, and we don't have too much sense of its order of magnitude either.

② First explicit formula:

Note $a_n = \# \{ \text{sequences of 1's \& 2's totalling to } n \}$



so $a_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \# \{ \text{sequences of } k \text{ 2's and } n-2k \text{ 1's} \}$



$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{(n-2k)+k}{k}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-k}{k}$$

e.g. $a_4 = \binom{4}{0} + \binom{4-1}{1} + \binom{4-2}{2}$
 $= \binom{4}{0} + \binom{3}{1} + \binom{2}{2}$
 $= 1 + 3 + 1$

Explicit, but maybe not so helpful.

(3)

③ Second explicit formula:

We'll derive soon that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\underbrace{\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1}}_{\text{call this } \psi} - \underbrace{\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1}}_{\text{call this } \psi} \right)$$

which is very explicit, but still not so good for computing a_{1000} on the nose.

(Why is it even an integer?!)

④ Asymptotic formula:

one has ~~from~~ from above that

$$a_n \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1}$$

Since $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \psi := \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618 \text{ (the golden ratio)} \\ \text{and } \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx -0.618 \in (-1, 0) \end{array} \right.$

$\psi :=$

(and in fact, a_n is the nearest integer to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1}$)

This tells us a lot about its growth,
e.g. its number of base 10 digits is

$$\log_{10}(a_n) = (n+1) \underbrace{\log_{10} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)}_{\approx 0.20899} + \log_{10} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \right)$$

⑤ (Ordinary) generating function for (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots)

$$A(x) \stackrel{\text{DEFN}}{:=} a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots \text{ as an element of } \mathbb{C}[[x]]$$

$$= 1 + x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 + 5x^4 + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n$$

the ring of formal power series in x with \mathbb{C} coefficients

9/11/15 \Rightarrow

Perhaps not clear yet why we would even consider $A(x)$,

but let's find a simple formula for it now (the slow way;

fast way later)

and derive everything else from it!

(4)

The recurrence $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$ ^{for $n \geq 2$} and $a_0 = a_1 = 1$

multiply x^n + sum on n gives $\sum_{n \geq 2} a_n x^n = \sum_{n \geq 2} a_{n-1} x^n + \sum_{n \geq 2} a_{n-2} x^n$

express in terms of $A(x)$

$$A(x) - a_1 x^1 - a_0 x^0 = x^1 \sum_{m \geq 1} a_{m-1} x^{m-1} + x^2 \sum_{m \geq 0} a_m x^m$$

solve for $A(x)$

$$A(x) - x - 1 = x(A(x) - 1) + x^2 A(x)$$

$$A(x)(1 - x - x^2) = x + 1 - x = 1$$

GENERATING FUNCTION $A(x) = \frac{1}{1-x-x^2}$ ← we'll learn to write this down immediately (!) later

What good is this? Plenty! It depends on how we try to extract or estimate coefficients.

(a) $A(x) = \frac{1}{1-(x+x^2)} = 1 + (x+x^2) + (x+x^2)^2 + (x+x^2)^3 + \dots$

i.e. $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n = \sum_{d \geq 0} (x+x^2)^d = \sum_{d \geq 0} \sum_{k=0}^d \binom{d}{k} (x^2)^k x^{d-k}$

$= \sum_{n \geq 0} x^n \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-k}{k} \right)$ ← $n = d+k$
 $d = n-k$

$\Rightarrow a_n = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-k}{k}$ from before

(b) $A(x) = \frac{1}{1-x-x^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right) \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}x} + \frac{-1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right) \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}x}$

i.e. $A(x) = \frac{1}{ax^2+bx+c}$ partial fraction computation (skipped!) $= \frac{1}{a(x-r_1)(x-r_2)} = \frac{A}{x-r_1} + \frac{B}{x-r_2} = \frac{-A/r_1}{1-\frac{x}{r_1}} + \frac{-B/r_2}{1-\frac{x}{r_2}}$

$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} x^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} x^n$

$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^{n+1} \right)$ from before.

(4/2)

The fast way (see Ardila p.20 #18) is via Polyá's "picture-writing":

$$\frac{1}{1 - \underbrace{\left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right)}_{\substack{A \quad B}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right)^n + \dots$$

\parallel
~~□~~
 \parallel
 $\left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right)$
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 $\left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right)$
 \parallel
 $\left(\dots + \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} + \dots \right)$
 $n=7$

$\square + \square + \square + \square$
 $n=2 \quad n=3 \quad n=3 \quad n=4$

A=x¹
B=x²

$$\mathbb{C}[[x]] \ni A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 1 + (x+x^2)^1 + (x+x^2)^2 + (x+x^2)^3 + \dots$$

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

(5/2)

Better yet

$$\mathbb{C}[[x, v]] := \sum_{n, m \geq 0} a_{n, m} x^n v^m = \left[\frac{1}{1 - \left(\begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} + \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \right)} \right]_{\substack{A=vx \\ B=x^2}} \in \mathbb{C}[[v, x]]$$

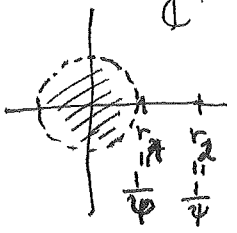
(and actually, even in $\mathbb{C}[[v]][[x]]$)

$$= 1 + (vx+x^2)^1 + (vx+x^2)^2 + (vx+x^2)^3 + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-(vx+x^2)} = \frac{1}{1-vx-x^2}$$

(5)

(c) The asymptotic $a_n \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n+1}$ was controlled by $\left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{ie. } c \cdot n \\ \text{for some } c \end{smallmatrix}\right)$
 the reciprocal of the pole of $A(x) = \frac{1}{1-x-x^2}$ nearest the origin in \mathbb{C}



(we'll say a little more about this later; or see Wilf §2.4 now; §5.2 later)

9/14/15 → The generating function can often be refined to keep track of more statistics, e.g. what if we wanted to compute $a_{n,m} = \#\{\text{tilings of } 2 \times n \text{ rectangle by dominoes with } m \text{ vertical dominoes}\}$



Later we'll see how to immediately write down $\sum_{n,m \geq 0} a_{n,m} x^n v^m = \frac{1}{1-vx-x^2}$ fraction of the n tiles are vertical, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

This lets us find out the expected number of vertical dominoes in a large random tiling, which should be $\frac{\sum_{n,m} a_{n,m} m}{\sum_{n,m} a_{n,m}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\sum_{m \geq 0} a_{n,m} m \right) x^n &= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial v} \sum_{n,m \geq 0} a_{n,m} x^n v^m \right]_{v=1} \\ &= \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial v} \frac{1}{1-vx-x^2} \right]_{v=1} \\ &= \left[\frac{x}{(1-vx-x^2)^2} \right]_{v=1} = \frac{x}{(1-x-x^2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

or the fraction of the n tiles that are vertical $\frac{\sum_{n,m} a_{n,m} m}{n \cdot a_n}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{x}{(x-r_1)^2(x-r_2)^2} &= \frac{A_1 x + B_1}{(x-r_1)^2} + \frac{A_2 x + B_2}{(x-r_2)^2} \\ &+ \frac{C_1}{x-r_1} + \frac{D_1}{x-r_2} \end{aligned}$$

Using partial fractions on this, one can show $\sum_{m \geq 0} a_{n,m} m \approx \frac{n}{5} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n+1} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} n a_n$ since $a_n \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^{n+1}$

Thus the expectation $\approx \frac{n}{\sqrt{5}}$, so out of the n tiles, expect roughly $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ are vertical, asymptotically.

(6)

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

(where $R = \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{Q} or $\mathbb{C}[x]$ or any commutative ring with 1)
or \mathbb{F}_q

DEFIN: $R[[x]] := \left\{ a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = A(x) \text{ with } (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) \in R \right\}$

is a ring having coefficientwise $+$: if $B(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$
(commutative) then $A(x) + B(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) x^n$

and multiplication \times via convolution:

$$C(x) := A(x)B(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$
$$\text{with } c_n = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i b_{n-i}$$
$$= a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) x^1 + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0) x^2 + \dots$$

so its $0 = 0 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + \dots$

$1 = 1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + \dots$

and one can check ...

PROP: $A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \in R[[x]]$ is a unit, i.e. $\exists B(x)$ with $1 = A(x)B(x)$

$\iff a_0$ is a unit of R , i.e. $\exists b_0 \in R$ with $1 = a_0 b_0$

proof: $1 = A(x)B(x) = a_0 b_0 + (a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0) x^1 + (a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0) x^2 + \dots$
 \parallel
 $1 + 0 \cdot x + 0 \cdot x^2 + \dots$

$\iff a_0 b_0 = 1$ (so need a_0 to be a unit if there's a hope of $A(x)$ being a unit)
i.e. $b_0 = a_0^{-1}$ in R

and then

$a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0 = 0$ means $b_1 = -\frac{a_1 b_0}{a_0}$ (already determined)

$a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0 = 0$ means $b_2 = \frac{-(a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0)}{a_0}$

\vdots

e.g. $A(x)(1-x-x^2) = 1$
 \downarrow \leftarrow unit! in \mathbb{C}
 $A(x) = \frac{1}{1-x-x^2}$ exists in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$
($= 1 + x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 + 5x^4 + \dots$)



(7)

DEFIN: A sequence $A_1(x), A_2(x), \dots$ in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$ converges, i.e. $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} A_j(x)$ exists and $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$[x^n] A_j(x)$$

i.e. $\forall n \geq 0 \exists N > 0$
such that

$$[x^n] A_j(x) = a_n \quad \forall n \geq N, j \geq 0$$

e.g. $A(x) = \frac{1}{1-x-x^2} = 1 + (x+x^2) + (x+x^2)^2 + (x+x^2)^3 + \dots$

$\underbrace{1}_{A_0(x)}$
 $\underbrace{1 + (x+x^2)}_{A_1(x)}$
 $\underbrace{1 + (x+x^2) + (x+x^2)^2}_{A_2(x)}$
 $\underbrace{1 + (x+x^2) + (x+x^2)^2 + (x+x^2)^3}_{A_3(x)}$

converges in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$, e.g. $[x^3] A(x) = [x^3] A_3(x)$

e.g. $e^{x+1} := 1 + \frac{(x+1)}{1!} + \frac{(x+1)^2}{2!} + \frac{(x+1)^3}{3!} + \dots$ does not (while $e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ does) $[x^3] A_4(x) = \dots = a_3 = 3$

Alternatively $\{A_j(x)\}_{j=0,1,\dots}$ converges in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$

if $\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \min \deg (A_j(x) - A_{j-1}(x)) = \infty$

where $\min \deg A(x) := \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{smallest } d \\ \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \text{ (with } a_d \neq 0) \end{array} \right\}$

e.g. above $A_j(x) - A_{j-1}(x) = (x+x^2)^j$, having $\min \deg = j \rightarrow \infty$ as $j \rightarrow \infty$

COR: $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} B_j(x) = B_0(x) + B_1(x) + B_2(x) + \dots$ converges in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$

$\underbrace{B_0(x)}_{A_0(x)}$
 $\underbrace{B_1(x) + B_2(x)}_{A_1(x)}$
 $\underbrace{B_2(x) + B_3(x) + \dots}_{A_2(x)}$

$\Leftrightarrow \min \deg B_j(x) = \infty$

$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n(x)$ (with $B_j = A_j - A_{j-1}$)

(8)

coR: Infinite products of the form

$$\prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1+B_j(x)) \text{ with } \min \deg B_j \geq 1 \quad \forall j$$

converge in $R[[x]] \iff \lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \min \deg B_j(x)$

proof: $A_j(x) = (1+B_1(x)) \cdots (1+B_j(x))$

has $A_j - A_{j-1} = \frac{(1+B_1) \cdots (1+B_{j-1})(1+B_j) - (1+B_1) \cdots (1+B_{j-1})}{(1+B_1) \cdots (1+B_{j-1})} = B_j \underbrace{(1+B_1) \cdots (1+B_{j-1})}_{\text{has } \min \deg = \min \deg B_j}$ \square

EXAMPLE(S): Partition generating functions (see Stanley §1.8)DEFIN: A ^(number) partition $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \dots)$ of n is a weakly decreasing $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$ with $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots = n$
eventually 0
sequence

of nonnegative integers

(i.e. $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$)and we write $|\lambda| = n$
and $n = |\lambda|$

e.g. $\lambda = (5, 5, 3, 1, 0, 0, \dots) = (5, 5, 3, 1, 0)$

$= (5, 5, 3, 1)$ is a partition of $n=14$
 $= 5+5+3+1$

Its length $l(\lambda) := \#\{i: \lambda_i > 0\} = \#$ of nonzero parts λ_i Its Ferrer's diagram is a left & top justified array of unit squares
with λ_i in row i from the top

e.g. $\lambda = (5, 5, 3, 1) \leftrightarrow$

5					
5					
3					
1					

(10)

② Let $q(n) := \#$ of partitions of n into distinct parts

n	$q(n)$	
0	1	\emptyset
1	1	\square
2	1	$\square \times$
3	2	$\square \square \times$
4	2	$\square \square \times \times \times$
5	3	$\square \square \square \times \times \times \times \times$

$$Q(x) := \sum_{n \geq 0} q(n) \cdot x^n = (1+x^1)(1+x^2)(1+x^3)(1+x^4) \dots = \prod_{j \geq 1} (1+x^j)$$

convergent!
(in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$)

9/16/15

③ Let $p_{\text{odd}}(n) := \#$ of partitions of n into odd parts

n	$p_{\text{odd}}(n)$	
0	1	\emptyset
1	1	\square
2	1	\square
3	2	$\square \square$
4	2	$\square \square$
5	3	$\square \square \square$

Looks the same, i.e. CONJECTURE: $p_{\text{odd}}(n) = q(n) \forall n \geq 0$. Why?

The gen. fns. will explain it:

$$P_{\text{odd}}(x) = (1+x^1+x^2+\dots)(1+x^3+(x^3)^2+\dots)(1+x^5+(x^5)^2+\dots)\dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1-x^1)(1-x^3)(1-x^5)\dots} = \frac{1}{\prod_{j \geq 0} (1-x^{2j+1})}$$

convergent

not clear yet
 $\stackrel{??}{=} \prod_{j \geq 1} (1+x^j)$

(11)

Well,

$$\begin{aligned}
Q(q) &= (1+q^1)(1+q^2)(1+q^3)\dots \\
&= \frac{1-q^2}{1-q} \cdot \frac{1-(q^2)^2}{1-q^2} \cdot \frac{1-(q^3)^3}{1-q^3} \dots \\
&= \frac{(1-q^2)(1-q^4)(1-q^6)(1-q^8)(1-q^{10})(1-q^{12})\dots}{(1-q^1)(1-q^2)(1-q^3)(1-q^4)(1-q^5)(1-q^6)\dots} \\
&= \frac{1}{(1-q^1)(1-q^3)(1-q^5)\dots} = P_{\text{odd}}(q) \quad !
\end{aligned}$$

Was that legal? Yes; let's justify it differently...
cancellation

Let $R(q) := (1-q^1)(1-q^3)(1-q^5)\dots = \frac{1}{P_{\text{odd}}(q)}$ in $\mathbb{C}[[q]]$
convergent!

It suffices to show $1 \stackrel{?}{=} Q(q)R(q)$ in $\mathbb{C}[[q]]$ (since mult. inverses are unique)

$$\begin{aligned}
1 + 0 \cdot q + 0 \cdot q^2 + \dots &= \underbrace{(1+q^1)(1+q^2)(1+q^3)\dots}_{\text{convergent}} \underbrace{(1-q^1)(1-q^3)(1-q^5)\dots}_{\text{convergent}} \\
&= \underbrace{(1+q^1)(1-q^1)}_{1-q^2} \cdot \underbrace{(1+q^2)(1+q^3)\dots}_{\text{convergent}} \cdot \underbrace{(1-q^3)(1-q^5)\dots}_{\text{convergent}} \\
&= (1-q^2) \cdot \underbrace{((1+q^3)(1+q^4)(1+q^5)\dots)}_{\text{convergent}} \cdot \underbrace{((1-q^3)(1-q^5)\dots)}_{\text{convergent}} \\
&= \underbrace{(1-q^2)(1-q^4)}_{\text{convergent}} \cdot \underbrace{((1+q^5)(1+q^6)\dots)}_{\text{convergent}} \cdot \underbrace{((1-q^5)(1-q^7)\dots)}_{\text{convergent}} \\
&= \underbrace{(1-q^2)(1-q^4)(1-q^6)}_{\text{convergent}} \cdot \underbrace{((1+q^7)(1+q^8)\dots)}_{\text{convergent}} \cdot \underbrace{((1-q^7)(1-q^9)\dots)}_{\text{convergent}} \\
&\quad \vdots \\
&\quad \text{etc.}
\end{aligned}$$

starts $1 + 0 \cdot q^1 + 0 \cdot q^2 + 0 \cdot q^3 + 0 \cdot q^4 + (??)$

Bijective proof: Given λ a partition with odd parts $2j-1$ of multiplicity r_j , write $r_j = 2^{i_1} + 2^{i_2} + \dots$ in its binary expansion and create μ having parts $(2j-1)2^{i_1}, (2j-1)2^{i_2}, \dots$
e.g. $\lambda = (9^5, 5^{12}, 3^2, 1^3) = (9^{2^0+2^1}, 5^{2^2+2^3}, 3^{2^1}, 1^{2^0+2^1}) \leftrightarrow \mu = (9 \cdot 2^0, 9 \cdot 2^1, 5 \cdot 2^2, 5 \cdot 2^3, 3 \cdot 2^1, 1 \cdot 2^0, 1 \cdot 2^1)$

Reversible: $(20, 10, 7, 6, 4) = (5 \cdot 2^2, 5 \cdot 2^1, 7 \cdot 2^0, 3 \cdot 2^1, 1 \cdot 2^2) \leftrightarrow \lambda = (5^{2^2+2^1}, 7^{2^0}, 3^{2^1}, 1^{2^2}) = (7, 5^6, 3^2, 1^4) \leftrightarrow \mu = (9, 36, 20, 40, 6, 1, 2) = (40, 36, 20, 9, 6, 2, 1)$

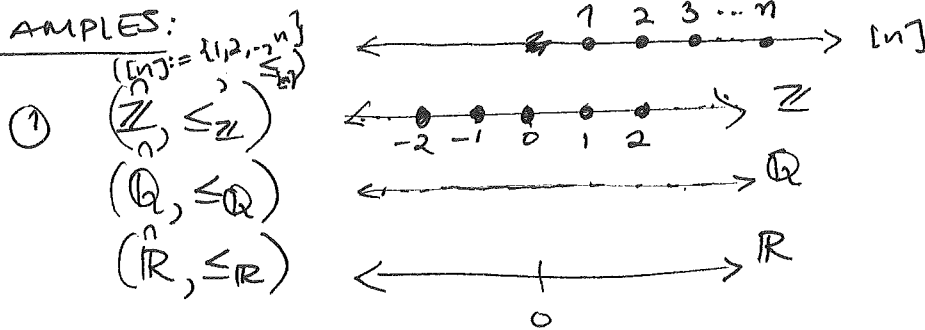
(12)

A peek into... Posets (Stanley Ch.3)

DEFIN: A poset (P, \leq_P) is a set P with a binary relation $x \leq_P y$ satisfying

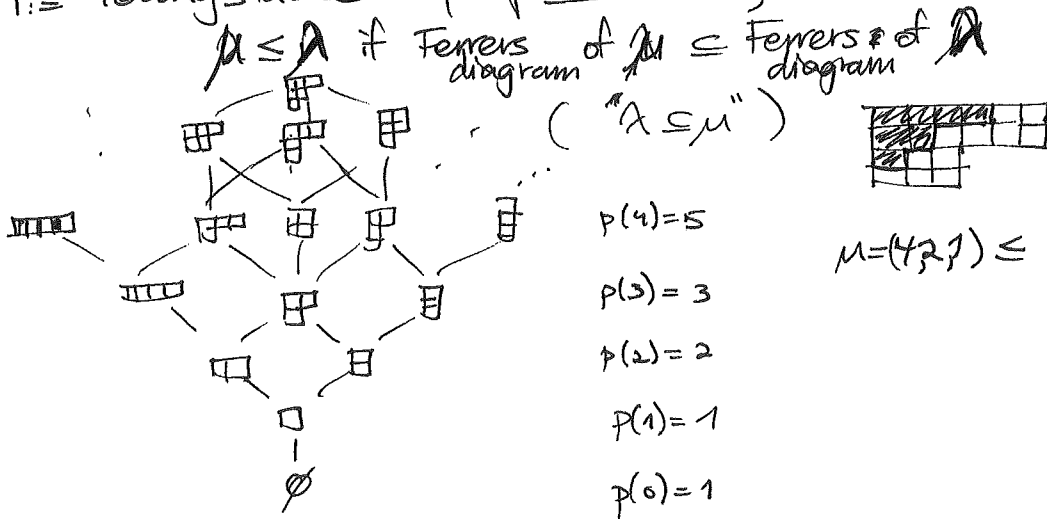
- $x \leq_P x$ (reflexive)
- $x \leq_P y, y \leq_P x \Rightarrow x = y$ (antisymmetric)
- $x \leq_P y, y \leq_P z \Rightarrow x \leq_P z$ (transitive)

EXAMPLES:



totally/linearly ordered;
a chain

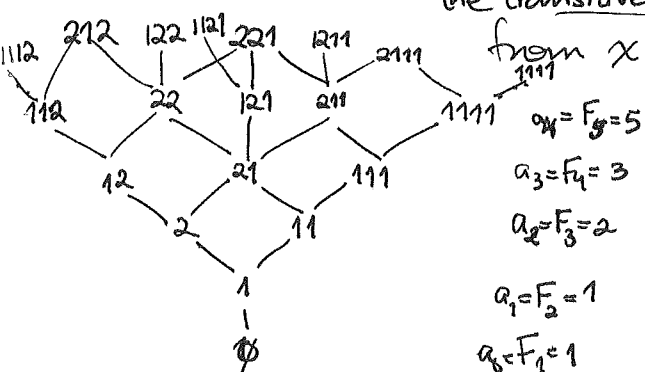
② $\Upsilon :=$ Young's lattice on {all partitions λ }



$\mu = (4, 2, 1) \leq \lambda = (6, 6, 3, 3)$

9/18/15 ④ $\Upsilon_{\neq} :=$ Young-Fibonacci lattice (see §3.21 Example 3.21.2 #4)
 $\mathbb{Z}_1 =$ 1-Fibonacci differential poset on {strings of 1's & 2's}

$:=$ the transitive closure of the relation $x < y$ if y is obtained



from x either by

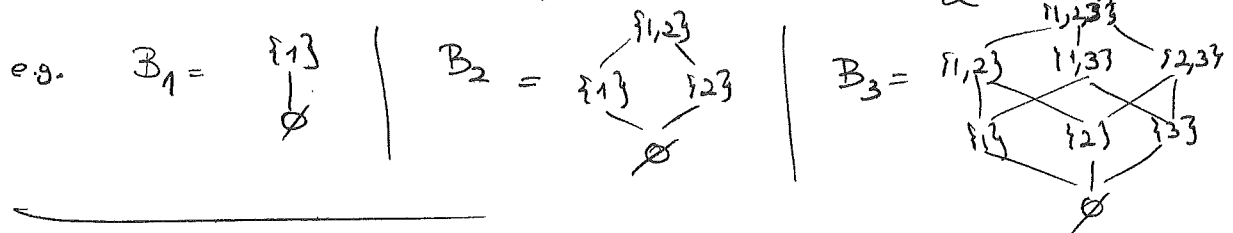
- replacing leftmost 1 by 2, or
- adding 1 anywhere left of all other 1's

Both Υ & Υ_{\neq} are differential posets (§3.21) which makes them very special, and helps solve certain path-counting problems for them...

(13)

② For S a set, $(2^S, \subseteq) = \text{Boolean algebra} = \{\text{all subsets of } S\}$
 with $S \subseteq T \iff S \subseteq T$

When $S = [n] := \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ we will call $2^S =: B_n$



Some common poset properties

	acc = ascending chain condition (no ∞ ascending chains $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3 \leq \dots$)	dcc = descending chain condition (no $x_1 \geq x_2 \geq x_3 \geq \dots$)	chain = finite = acc + dcc (no ∞ chains)	locally finite, i.e. all intervals $[x,y] := \{z \in P : x \leq z \leq y\}$ are finite	$\hat{0}$ bottom element \uparrow	$\hat{1}$ top element \downarrow
\mathbb{Z}	no	no	no	yes	no	no
\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}	no	no	no	no	no	no
\mathbb{Z}/n	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes $\hat{0}=1$	yes $\hat{1}=n$
2^S for $ S =\infty$	no	no	no	no	yes; $\hat{0}=\emptyset$	yes; $\hat{1}=S$
$B_n = 2^{[n]}$	yes	yes	yes	yes	$\hat{0}=\emptyset$	$\hat{1}=S = \{1,2,\dots,n\}$
\mathbb{Y}	no	yes	no	yes	$\hat{0}=\emptyset$	no
\mathbb{Y}^*	no	yes	yes	yes	$\hat{0}=\emptyset$	no

When P is locally-finite (or even locally chain-finite, i.e. all intervals $[x,y]$ are chain-finite)

then \leq_P is the transitive closure of the covering relation $x \lessdot_P y$
 defined by $x \leq_P y$ and $\nexists z \in P$ with $x \lessdot_P z \lessdot_P y$

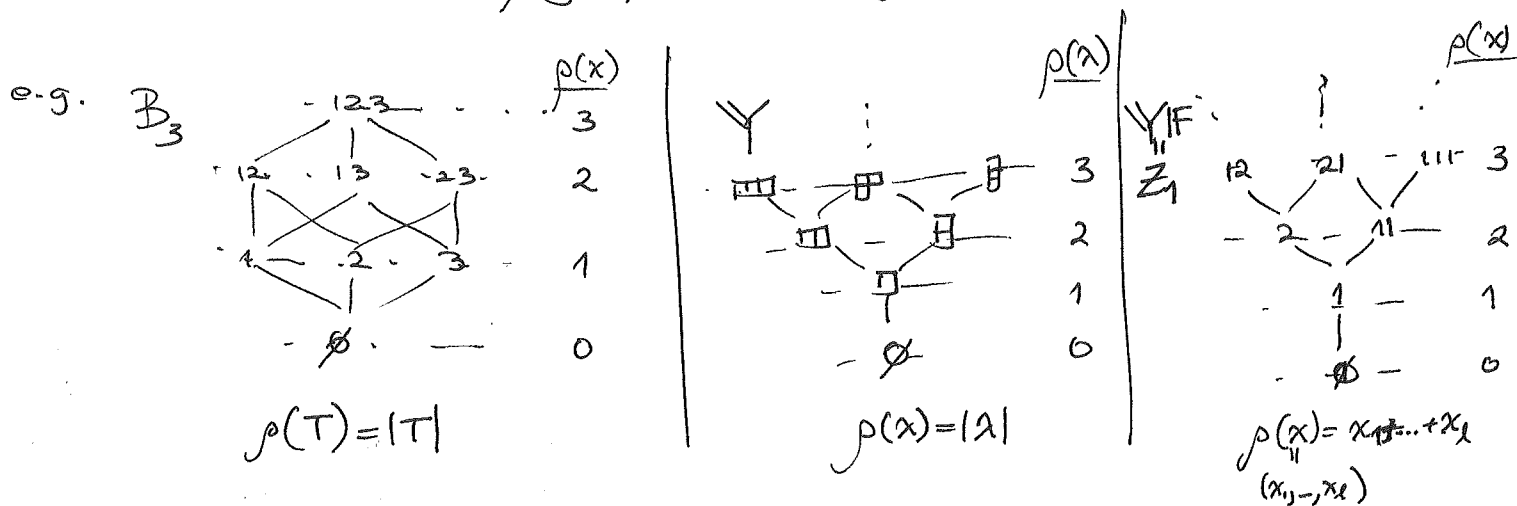
Then one can represent P by its Hasse diagram:

draw P as nodes in the plane with edges $\begin{array}{c} y \\ / \quad \backslash \\ x \end{array}$ whenever $x \lessdot_P y$
 (and y higher in the plane)

(14)

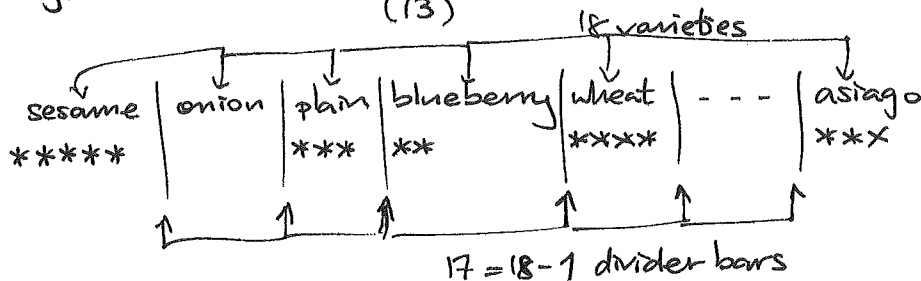
DEFIN. If P is finite, (or if it is locally finite and has a bottom element $\hat{0}$), say P is graded if every maximal chain (=totally ordered subset) has same size (resp. if every maximal chain in $[\hat{0}, x]$ has same size).

In this case, there is a unique rank function $\rho: P \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ satisfying $\rho(x) = 0$ if only if x is minimal in P and $\rho(y) = \rho(x) + 1$ if $y \succ_P x$.



We sneaked into an extra lecture day this material (because we had brought bagels...)

ways to choose a baker's dozen bagels from 18 varieties of bagel = $\binom{18}{13}$



\rightsquigarrow ***** || *** | ** | ***** | ||||| ||||| ||||| *****
 18 - 1 + 13 positions, in which to choose 13 *'s

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \binom{18}{13} \\
 &= \binom{18+13-1}{13} \\
 &= \binom{30}{13} \\
 &= \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \\
 &= \frac{\#k\text{-subset of } \{1, 2, \dots, n\}}{|\mathbb{C}_k \times \mathbb{C}_{n-k}|}
 \end{aligned}$$

$n=30, k=13$

since \mathbb{C}_n = symm. group on n letters acts transitively (with 1 orbit) on products of $[n]$ and Orbit-Stabilizer LEMMA says if G acts on X , any orbit $O \subseteq X$ has $|O| = \frac{|G|}{|G_x|}$ where $G_x := \{g \in G : g(x) = x\}$

(15) Back to formal power series for a bit...

We'll have use for these elements of $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$:

DEF'N: $e^x := \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$

$\log(1+x) := \sum_{n \geq 1} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$

$\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, $(1+x)^\lambda := \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{\lambda}{k} x^k$
 $\stackrel{\text{DEF}}{=} \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)\dots(\lambda-(k-1))}{k!} \in \mathbb{C}$

(just like $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-(k-1))}{k!}$
 if $n \in \mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$)

They do have all the usual properties you might expect,

EXAMPLES ① $(1+x)^\lambda (1+x)^\mu = (1+x)^{\lambda+\mu}$ in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$

② $e^{\log(1+x)} = 1+x$ ③ $e^x e^y = e^{x+y}$, etc...

defined to be $= 1 + \log(1+x) + \frac{(\log(1+x))^2}{2!} + \dots$
 $= 1 + \left(x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots\right) + \frac{\left(x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots\right)^2}{2!} + \dots$

Why does this even converge in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$? Because $\log(1+x) = 0 + x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots$

(In fact, PROP: If $A(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n$, $B(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n$ and $b_0 = 0$, then $A(B(x)) := \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n B(x)^n$ converges in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$.)

How to justify ①, ②, ③ etc...? ③ is laborious without a cheat from calc (Taylor series) or complex analysis (applied to $e^{\log(1+x)} = (1+x) = f(x)$ analytic for $|x| < 1$)

THM: If $f(z) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n z^n$ is analytic for $|z| < R$ and f vanishes on $|z| < R$ (or even on ∞ many points $z_1, z_2, \dots \rightarrow z_0$ approaching a limit point in $|z| < R$)

then $f(z) \equiv 0$ i.e. $a_0 = a_1 = \dots = 0$.



(16)

$$\textcircled{3} (1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$$

for $n \in \mathbb{N}$

but also

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^n} = (1+(-x))^{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} (-x)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-n)(-n-1)(-n-2)\dots(-n-(k-1))}{k!} (-1)^k x^k$$

//

onion $(1+x+x^2+\dots)$ sesame $(1+x+x^2+\dots)$ asiago $(1+x+x^2+\dots)$

n parentheses
 //
 18 flavors of bagels

~~***x||...*|***~~

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)\dots(n+k-1)}{k!} x^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k-1}{k} x^k$$

$\binom{n}{k} = \#$ k -element multisubsets of $[n]$

$$\binom{18}{13}$$

$$\binom{18+13-1}{13}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \frac{1}{1-4x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-1}{k} (-4x)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{1+k-1}{k} 4^k x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 4^k x^k \checkmark$$

$\binom{-1}{k} = \binom{1+k-1}{k} = 1$

$$(1+(-4x))^{-1}$$

but also $\frac{1}{(1-4x)^2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{2+k-1}{k} 4^k x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1) 4^k x^k$

$$\frac{1}{(1-4x)^3} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{3+k-1}{k} 4^k x^k$$

$\binom{k+1}{k} = k+1$

useful for coefficient extraction after partial fraction expansions

9/21/15 $\textcircled{5} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4x}} = (1-4x)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-\frac{1}{2}}{k} (-4)^k x^k$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{-\frac{1}{2}(-\frac{3}{2})(-\frac{5}{2})\dots(-\frac{2k-1}{2})}{k!} (-4)^k \right) x^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^k 4^k (1)(3)(5)\dots(2k-1)}{2^k \cdot k!} x^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6 \dots 2k}{2^k \cdot k!} (1)(3)(5)\dots(2k-1) x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2k)!}{k! k!} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{2k}{k} x^k \quad (!)$$

(17) Another calculus tool in $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$...

DEF'N: For $A(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n \in \mathbb{R}[[x]]$,

the formal derivative $A'(x) := \sum_{n \geq 1} \underbrace{na_n}_{= \underbrace{a_n + a_n + \dots + a_n}_{n \text{ times}}} x^{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}[[x]]$

It satisfies the usual rules from calculus:

$$(A(x) + B(x))' = A'(x) + B'(x)$$

$$(AB)' = (A')B + A \cdot (B')$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{A}\right)' = \frac{-A'}{A^2}$$

$$A(B(x))' = A'(B(x)) \cdot B'(x)$$

(18)

More on sets, binomial, multinomial (Stanley §1.2)

Binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$ has several (easy) interpretations

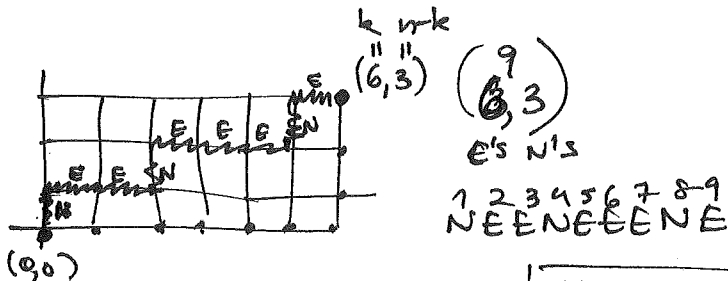
$\binom{n}{k, n-k} = \# \text{ words with } k \text{ 1's and } n-k \text{ 0's}$

i.e. rearrangements of $\underbrace{11\dots1}_k \underbrace{00\dots0}_{n-k}$

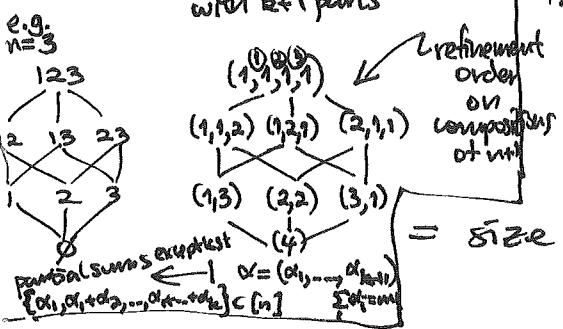
e.g. $\binom{4}{2} = 6 = \#$

- 1100
- 0110
- 1010
- 0101
- 1001
- 0011

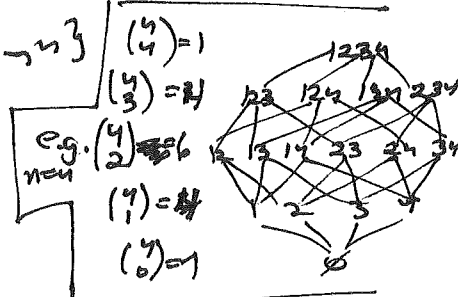
$\binom{n}{k} = \# \text{ lattice paths taking east or north unit steps from } (0,0) \text{ to } (k, n-k)$



$\binom{n}{k} = \# \{ \text{ordered compositions } \alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_{k+1}), \alpha_i \in \mathbb{P} \text{ of } n = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_{k+1} \text{ with } k+1 \text{ parts} \}$



$\binom{n}{k} = \text{size of } k^{\text{th}} \text{ rank in } B_n = 2^{\{1,2,\dots,n\}}$



$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$ binomial theorem

Multinomials

EXAMPLE: How many rearrangements of BANANAS, i.e. of 9A's, 1B's, 2N's, 1S's?

or of $A^4 B^1 N^2 S^1$

There is again a transitive \mathcal{G}_7 -action:

$\mathcal{G} = (12)(34)(567) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 6 & 7 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$ sends $A^4 B^1 N^2 S^1 \mapsto A^4 B^1 A^2 S^1$

The stabilizer is $\mathcal{G}_3 \times \mathcal{G}_1 \times \mathcal{G}_2 \times \mathcal{G}_1 \leq \mathcal{G}_7$, so $|\mathcal{O}| = \frac{|\mathcal{G}_7|}{|\mathcal{G}_3 \times \mathcal{G}_1 \times \mathcal{G}_2 \times \mathcal{G}_1|} = \frac{7!}{3! \cdot 1! \cdot 2! \cdot 1!} = \binom{7}{3,1,2,1}$

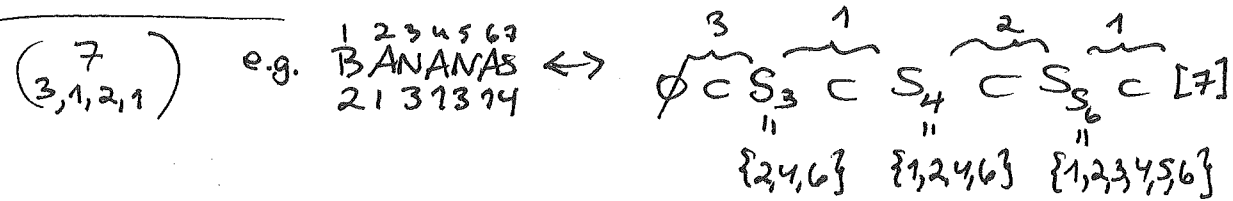
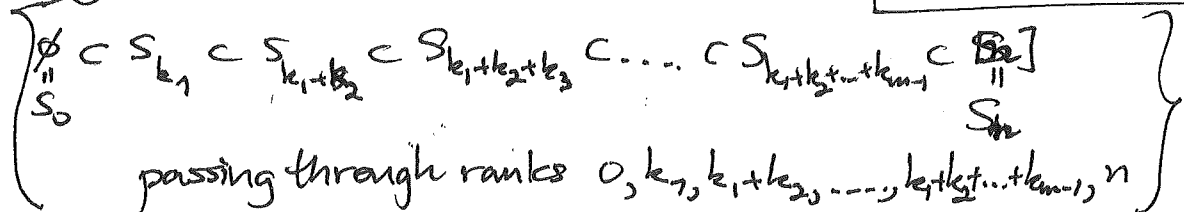
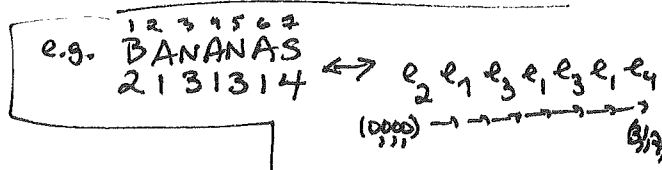
(19)

$$\binom{n}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m} = \frac{n!}{k_1! k_2! \dots k_m!} \text{ for } k_1 + \dots + k_m = n$$

= # words with k_1 1's, k_2 2's, ..., k_m m's, i.e. rearrangements of $\underbrace{11\dots 1}_{k_1} \underbrace{22\dots 2}_{k_2} \dots \underbrace{mm\dots m}_{k_m}$

= # lattice paths in \mathbb{Z}^m taking e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m steps from $\underbrace{(0, 0, \dots, 0)}_m$ to (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m)

= # chains of flags in B_n



Note $\binom{n}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_m} = \binom{n}{k_1} \binom{n-k_1}{k_2} \binom{n-k_1-k_2}{k_3} \dots \binom{n-k_1-k_2-\dots-k_{m-1}}{k_m} \binom{k_m}{k_m}$

Also $(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_m)^n = \sum_{(k_1, \dots, k_m): \sum k_i = n} \binom{n}{k_1, \dots, k_m} x_1^{k_1} \dots x_m^{k_m}$

