

REPLACE

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I. REPLACE

1. For $a, b, k \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\binom{a+b}{k} = \sum_{j=1}^k \binom{a}{j} \cdot \binom{b}{k-j} \quad (0.1)$$

We prove this with a bijection:

$$\mathcal{B}(a+b, k) \rightleftharpoons \bigcup_{j=0}^k \mathcal{B}(a, j) \times \mathcal{B}(b, k-j)$$

given by $S \mapsto (S \cap \{1, \dots, a\}, (S \cap \{a+1, \dots, a+b\})^{(-a)})$ and $(P, Q) \mapsto P \cup Q^{(a)}$, where $\mathcal{B}(n, i)$ is the set of i -element subsets of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and for $C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ and $q \in \mathbb{Z}$, $C^{(q)} = \{c+q : c \in C\}$. Note that the equation in fact gives the polynomial identity

$$\binom{x+y}{k} = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{x}{j} \binom{y}{k-j}$$

in $\mathbb{Q}[x, y]$. We denote the falling factorial $(x)_i = x(x-1)(x-2)\cdots(x-i+1)$, which has degree i for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, $(x)_i = i! \binom{x}{i}$, so multiplying our identity by $k!$, we get

$$(x+y)_k = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} (x)_j (y)_{k-j}$$

Compare this with the standard binomial theorem

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

These are called sequences of binomial type.

2. Here's another identity. For $n \geq 0$ and $s, t \geq 1$,

$$\binom{n+s+t-1}{s+t-1} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{k+s-1}{s-1} \binom{n-k+t-1}{t-1}$$

Let $\mathcal{M}(m, r)$ denote a multiset of size m with elements of r types, so that $|\mathcal{M}(m, r)| = \binom{m+r-1}{r-1}$. Let's define a bijection

$$\mathcal{M}(n, s+t) \rightleftharpoons \bigcup_{k=1}^n \mathcal{M}(k, s) \times \mathcal{M}(n-k, t) \quad (0.2)$$

$\mu = (m_1, \dots, m_{s+t}) \mapsto ((m_1, \dots, m_s), (m_{s+1}, \dots, m_{s+t}))$ and $(v, \theta) \mapsto v\theta$. Note that if f, g are polynomials of degree d and e respectively, then $\sum_{k=0}^n f(k)g(n-k)$ is a polynomial in n of degree $d+e-1$.

Is there some way to understand (0.2)? It is unclear, with our known techniques, that this corresponds to a polynomial identity since there is a variable n in the exponent. However, we can use generating functions. Define

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+s+t-1}{s+t-1} z^n &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} |\mathcal{M}(n, s+t)| z^n = \sum_{(m_1, \dots, m_{s+t})} z^{m_1 + \dots + m_{s+t}} \\ &= \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} z^m \right)^{s+t} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-z)^{s+t}} = \frac{1}{(1-z)^s} \frac{1}{(1-z)^t} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{k+s-1}{s-1} z^k \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \binom{\ell+t-1}{t-1} z^\ell \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{k+s-1}{s-1} \binom{n-k+t-1}{t-1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, (0.1) is equivalent to saying $(1+z)^{a+b} = (1+z)^a (1+z)^b$. Note that $(1+z)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} z^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} z^k$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Can we substitute $\frac{1}{(1-q)^t} = (1+z)^n$ where $z = -q$ and $n = -t$?

3. Consider

$$(x_1 + x_2)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x_1^i x_2^{n-i}$$

and

$$(x_1 + x_2)^n = \sum_{f: N_n \rightarrow \{1,2\}} \prod_{j=1}^n x_{f(j)}$$

More generally, we can consider

$$(x_1 + \dots + x_k)^n = \sum_{f: N_n \rightarrow N_k} \prod_{j \in N_n} x_{f(j)}$$

If we set all $x_1 = \dots = x_k = 1$, then k^n gives the number of functions from N_n to N_k . If we set $x_i = q^i$ for all $i \in N_k$, then we get

$$\left(\frac{q - q^{k+1}}{1 - q} \right)^n = (q + q^2 + \dots + q^k)^n = \sum_{f: N_n \rightarrow N_k} q^{f(1) + \dots + f(n)}$$

Collect all the terms in $(x_1 + \dots + x_k)^n$ that produce the same monomial. Given a multiset μ with $m_1 + \dots + m_k = n$, write $x_1^{m_1} \dots x_k^{m_k} = \underline{x}^\mu$. Then

$$(x_1 + \dots + x_k)^n = \frac{n!}{m_1! \dots m_k!} \underline{x}^\mu = \sum_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}(n, k)} \binom{n}{\mu} \underline{x}^\mu$$

4. How can we interpret

$$P_n(q) = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 + q + q^2 + \cdots + q^{i-1})$$

In general, if we set $q = 1$, we see that $P_n(1) = n!$. We might hope that there is some weight function on permutations $w : \mathcal{S}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $P_n(q) = \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_n} q^{w(\sigma)}$. Recall the bijection $I_n : \mathcal{S}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{Q}_n$ from chapter 1. Let's find some weight function $v : \mathcal{Q}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that $\sum_{\rho \in \mathcal{Q}_n} x^{v(\rho)} = P_n(q)$, then "pull back" the definition of $v : \mathcal{Q}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ to get a definition for $\omega : \mathcal{S}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. Note that $\sum_{h \in \mathbb{N}_r} q^{h-1} = 1 + q + \cdots + q^{r-1}$. Thus

$$\sum_{\rho=(h_1, \dots, h_n) \in \mathcal{Q}_n} q^{(h_1-1)+(h_2-1)+\cdots+(h_n-1)} = \prod_{i=1}^n (1 + q + \cdots + q^{i-1}) = P_n(q)$$

so we can define $v(\rho) = |\rho| - n$ and $\sum_{\rho \in \mathcal{Q}_n} q^{|\rho| - n} = P_n(q)$. We also have

$$\sum_{\rho \in \mathcal{Q}_n} q^{(h_1-1)+\cdots+(h_n-1)} = (1 + q + \cdots + q^{n-1})(1 + q + \cdots + q^{n-2}) \cdots (1 + q)(1)$$

For notation, define $[m]_q = 1 + q + \cdots + q^{m-1} = \frac{1-q^m}{1-q}$. Then $[m]_q! = [m]_q [m-1]_q \cdots [1]_q$.

	1	q	q ²	q ³	q ⁴
$q[3]_q$	0	1	1	1	
$[2]_q[3]_q$	1	2	2	1	
$-q[2]_q[3]_q$	0	-1	-2	-2	-1
$q^2[2]_q[3]_q$	0	0	1	2	2
$[6]_q$	1	1	1	1	1

so that $[6]_q = (1 - q + q^2)[2]_q[3]_q$. An **inversion** in $\sigma = a_1 \dots a_n \in \mathcal{S}_n$ is a pair (i, j) of indices $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ with $a_i > a_j$. Define $\text{Inv}(\sigma)$ as the set of inversions of σ , and $\text{inv}(\sigma) = |\text{Inv}(\sigma)|$. Notice that if $\sigma = a_1 \dots a_n \mapsto \rho = (h_1, \dots, h_n)$, then for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, $h_i - 1$ is the number of inversions of σ with i in the first coordinate. Recall

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{S}_n &\rightleftharpoons \mathcal{B}(n, k) \times \mathcal{S}_k \times \mathcal{S}_{n-k} \\ \sigma = a_1 \dots a_n &\leftrightarrow (A, \beta, \gamma) \\ \text{inv}(\sigma) &= w(A) + \text{inv}(\beta) + \text{inv}(\gamma) \end{aligned}$$

Assuming such a weight function $w(A)$ exists, then

$$\begin{aligned} [n]_q! &= \sum_{\sigma \in \mathcal{S}_n} q^{\text{inv}(\sigma)} = \sum_{(A, \beta, \gamma)} q^{w(A) + \text{inv}(\beta) + \text{inv}(\gamma)} \\ &= [k]_q! \cdot [n-k]_q! \cdot \sum_{A \in \mathcal{B}(n, k)} q^{w(A)} \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\sum_{A \in \mathcal{B}(n, k)} q^{w(A)} = \frac{[n]_q!}{[k]_q! \cdot [n-k]_q!} = \left[\begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right]_q$$

$$\sum_{S \in \mathcal{B}(n,k)} q^{\text{sum}(S)} = q^{\binom{k+1}{2}} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q$$

0.1 Theorem. Let V be an n -dimensional vector space over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . Then for $0 \leq k \leq n$, the number of k -dimensional subspaces of V is $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q$.

0.2 Lemma. Let $L : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear transformation that is surjective. Then $\dim V = \dim W + \dim(\ker L)$. So if this is over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q , every $w \in W$ is the image of exactly $q^{\dim(\ker L)}$ vectors $v \in V$.

For every $w \in W$, is the image of exactly q^k vectors in V . The number of ordered bases of V is $q^{\binom{n}{2}}(q-1)^n[n]_q!$.

0.3 Theorem. Let V be an n -dimensional vector space over a finite field \mathbb{F}_q . For $0 \leq k \leq n$, the number of k -dimensional subspaces of V is $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}_q$.

PROOF Let $\text{OB}(V)$ be the set of ordered bases of V , and let $G(V, k)$ be the set of k -dimensional subspaces of V . Define a function

$$\text{OB}(V) \rightarrow \bigcup_{U \in G(V, k)} (\{U\} \times \text{OB}(U) \times \text{OB}(V/U))$$

as follows. Given (v_1, \dots, v_n) an ordered basis of V , let $U = \text{span}_{\mathbb{F}_q}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$. Then $(v_1, \dots, v_k) \in \text{OB}(U)$ and $(v_{k+1} + U, \dots, v_n + U) \in \text{OB}(V/U)$. Consider the map $L : V \rightarrow V/U$ given by $L(v) = v + U$, so that every $v + U$ in V/U is the image of q^k vectors in V . Thus $(v_{k+1} + U, \dots, v_n + U)$ is the image of $q^{k(n-k)}$ sequences (z_{k+1}, \dots, z_n) of vectors in V . Thus the function $(v_1, \dots, v_n) \mapsto (U, (v_1, \dots, v_k), (v_{k+1} + U, \dots, v_n + U))$ is surjective and hits everything on the RHS $q^{k(n-k)}$ times. But then counting both sides,

$$\begin{aligned} q^{\binom{n}{2}}(q-1)^n[n]_q! &= \sum_{U \in G(V, k)} 1 \cdot q^{\binom{k}{2}}(q-1)^k[k]_q! \cdot q^{\binom{n-k}{2}}(q-1)^{n-k}[n-k]_q! \cdot q^{k(n-k)} \\ q^{\binom{n}{2}}[n]_q! &= |G(V, k)| \cdot [k]_q! \cdot [n-k]_q! q^{\binom{k}{2} + \binom{n-k}{2} + k(n-k)} \\ [n]_q! &= |G(V, k)| \cdot [k]_q! \cdot [n-k]_q! \end{aligned}$$

giving our desired result. ■

A **set partition** π of a set V is a collection of subsets $\pi = \{B_1, \dots, B_k\}$ of V such that

- Each B_i is not empty
- $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ if $i \neq j$
- $B_1 \cup \dots \cup B_k = V$

Let $\Pi(n, k)$ be the set of set partitions of N_n with k blocks, and set $S(n, k) = |\Pi(n, k)|$. Certainly $S(0, 0) = 1$ for the empty set partition. If $n \geq 1$, then $S(n, 0) = 0$, $S(n, n) = 1$, and $S(n, 1) = 1$. We can also define a recurrence relation. Let $\Pi'(n, k)$ be those $\pi \in \Pi(n, k)$ in which $\{n\}$ is a block, and $\Pi''(n, k)$ is the set of π in which n is in a block of size at least 2. Note that $\Pi'(n, k) \rightleftharpoons \Pi(n-1, k-1)$ by removing or adding the independent element.

Furthermore, the function which removes the element n from a block in $\Pi''(n, k)$ is a surjective function onto $\Pi(n-1, k)$ which hits every element of $\Pi(n-1, k)$ k times. Thus combining these observations, $S(n, k) = S(n-1, k-1) + k \cdot S(n-1, k)$. Thus we can compute

$S(n, k)$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1	X	X	X	X	X	X
1	0	1	X	X	X	X	X
2	0	1	1	X	X	X	X
3	0	1	3	1	X	X	X
4	0	1	7	6	1	X	X
5	0	1	15	25	10	1	X
6	0	1	31		1		

From homework 2, we have that

$$x^n = \sum_{k=0}^n k! S(n, k) \binom{n}{k}$$

Invert this using Binomial Inversion.

0.4 Theorem. (Binomial Inversion) Let a_0, a_1, \dots be a sequence.

PROOF For $h \in \mathbb{N}$, let $b_h = \sum_{i=0}^h \binom{h}{i} a_i$. Let $A(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i t^i$ and $B(t) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} b_h t^h$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 B(t) &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} t^h \sum_{i=0}^h \binom{h}{i} a_i \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i t^i \sum_{h=i}^{\infty} \binom{h}{h-i} t^{h-i} \\
 &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i t^i \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{i+j}{j} t^j = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_i t^i}{(1-t)^{i+1}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{1-t} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i \left(\frac{t}{1-t} \right)^i = \frac{1}{1-t} A\left(\frac{t}{1-t} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Let $z = t/(1-t)$, so that $t = z/(1+z)$. Thus

$$B\left(\frac{z}{1+z} \right) = (1+z)A(z)$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i z^i &= \frac{1}{1+z} B\left(\frac{z}{1+z} \right) = \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} b_h \frac{z^h}{(1+z)^{h+1}} \\
 &= \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} b_h \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{j+h}{h} z^h (-z)^j \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{j} (-1)^{n-j} b_j
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$, $a_m = \sum_{j=0}^m \binom{m}{j} (-1)^{m-j} b_j$. ■

In particular, applying this to Stirling numbers of the second kind, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, we have

$$x^n = \sum_{k=0}^n S(n, k) \binom{x}{k} k!$$

Let $b_i = i^n$ for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. If $k > n$ or $k > i$, then $S(n, k) \binom{i}{k} = 0$; thus,

$$\begin{aligned} i^n &= \sum_{k=0}^n S(n, k) \binom{i}{k} k! = \sum_{k=0}^{\min(n, i)} S(n, k) \binom{i}{k} k! = \sum_{k=0}^i S(n, k) \binom{i}{k} k! \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^i \binom{i}{k} a_k \end{aligned}$$

where $a_k = k! S(n, k)$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$. But then apply binomial inversion to get

$$a_k = \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k}{j} (-1)^{k-j} b_j$$

Suppose $m^n = \sum_{k=0}^n S(n, k) \binom{m}{k} k!$. Then $[m]_q^n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} S[n, k]_q \left[\begin{matrix} m \\ k \end{matrix} \right]_q [k]_q!$, where $S[n, k]_q = \sum_{\pi \in \Pi(n, k)} q^{w(\pi)}$. Is there some function $w : \Pi(n, k) \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ that makes this work?

II. Power Series Identities

- (i) $\frac{1}{(1-z)^h} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{k+h-1}{h-1} z^k$
- (ii) Let a_0, a_1, \dots be a sequence, and $b_h = \sum_{i=0}^h \binom{h}{i} a_i$. Then $a_m = \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{m}{i} (-1)^{m-i} b_i$.
- (iii) General Binomial Series. For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\binom{y}{k} = \frac{y(y-1)\dots(y-k+1)}{k!} \in \mathbb{Q}[y]$. Then we define

$$(1+x)^y = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{y}{k} x^k$$

which is a power series in x . Each coefficient of $[x^n]$ is in $\mathbb{Q}[y]$. Then by Vandermonde convolution,

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x)^y (1+x)^z &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \binom{y}{i} x^i \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \binom{z}{j} x^j \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \left(\sum_{i=0}^n \binom{y}{i} \binom{z}{n-i} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{y+z}{n} x^n = (1+x)^{y+z} \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, if $y = -p < 0$ is an integer, then

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x)^{-p} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-p}{k} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{k+p-1}{p-1} x^k \end{aligned}$$

For $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, $f(x) = (1+x)^\alpha$ is analytic for $|x| < 1$. In particular, by Taylor's theorem,

$$(1+x)^\alpha = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k x^k$$

where $c_k = \frac{1}{k!} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} (1+x)^\alpha \big|_{x=0}$.