

## Lecture 7: September 1

Lecturer: Neil Calkin

Scribe: Jack Cooper/Shihwei Chao

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Recall:  $c_n$  is the number of ways of parenthesizing  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$ . We have

$$c_n = \frac{1}{4n-2} \binom{2n}{n}.$$

Thus

$$c_1 = 1$$

$$c_2 = 1$$

$$c_3 = 2$$

$$c_4 = 5$$

$$c_5 = 14$$

$$c_6 = 42$$

$$c_7 = 132$$

$$c_8 = 429$$

$$c_9 = 1430$$

$$c_{10} = 4862$$

Note:  $\frac{1}{2(2n-1)} \binom{2n}{n} = \frac{(2n)!}{2(2n-1)n!n!} = \frac{(2n-2)!}{n(n-1)!(n-1)!} = \frac{1}{n} \binom{2(n-1)}{n-1}$  gives a slightly nicer representation: fewer factors. A useful website, The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences, <http://www.research.att.com/njas/sequences/> Observe that

$$c_1 = 1$$

$$c_2 = 1$$

$$c_3 = 2$$

$$c_4 = 5$$

$$c_5 = 14 = 2 \times 7$$

$$c_6 = 42 = 2 \times 3 \times 7$$

$$c_7 = 132 = 2^2 \times 3 \times 11$$

$$c_8 = 429 = 3 \times 11 \times 13$$

Then,

$$\frac{c_2}{c_1} = 1 = \frac{2}{2} = \frac{2 \times 1}{2}$$

$$\frac{c_3}{c_2} = 2 = \frac{6}{3} = \frac{2 \times 3}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{c_4}{c_3} &= \frac{5}{2} = \frac{10}{4} = \frac{2 \times 5}{4} \\ \frac{c_5}{c_4} &= \frac{2 \times 7}{5} = \frac{14}{5} = \frac{2 \times 7}{5} \\ \frac{c_6}{c_5} &= 3 = \frac{18}{6} = \frac{2 \times 9}{6} \\ \frac{c_7}{c_6} &= \frac{2 \times 11}{7} = \frac{22}{7} = \frac{2 \times 11}{7} \\ \frac{c_8}{c_7} &= \frac{13}{4} = \frac{26}{8} = \frac{2 \times 13}{8} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have for  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$\frac{c_n}{c_{n-1}} = \frac{2(2n-3)}{n}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } c_n &= \frac{c_n}{c_{n-1}} \times \frac{c_{n-1}}{c_{n-2}} \times \frac{c_{n-2}}{c_{n-3}} \times \dots \times \frac{c_2}{c_1} \times c_1 = \frac{2^{n-1}(2n-3)(2n-5)\dots 3 \cdot 1}{n(n-1)\dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{2^{n-1}(2n-3)(2n-5)\dots 3 \cdot 1 \cdot (2n-2)(2n-4)\dots 4 \cdot 2}{(n-1)! 2^{n-1} (n-1)!} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{(2n-2)!}{(n-1)!(n-1)!} = \frac{1}{n} \binom{2n-2}{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Formal power series  $\leftrightarrow$  oneway infinite sequences i.e.  $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n \leftrightarrow (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots)$

Equip the space of formal power series ( or oneway infinite sequences ) with coefficients in a ring ( say  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\frac{\mathbb{Z}}{2\mathbb{Z}}$ , etc. ) with a metric  $|\cdot|_u$ , it is actually an ultrametric via the following.

Fix  $0 < \gamma < 1$ . If  $f(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n$ , set  $|f(x)|_u = \gamma^k$  where  $k = \text{least } n \text{ so that } a_n \neq 0$ , that is  $f(x) = a_k x^k \left( 1 + \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} x + \frac{a_{k+2}}{a_k} x^2 + \dots \right)$  and  $a_k \neq 0$ . Define  $|0|_u = 0$ .

This metric induces a topology on the set of power series: Let  $f_n(x)$ ,  $n \geq 0$ , be a sequence of power series, then  $f_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  means  $|f_n(x) - 0|_u \rightarrow 0$ , with respect to the reals, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .  $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists n_0$  such that if  $n > n_0$  then  $|f_n(x)|_u < \varepsilon \equiv$  setting  $N = \frac{\log \varepsilon}{\log \gamma}$ , this means degree of leading term of  $f_n(x) > N$ .

Hence  $f_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  is this topology  $\Leftrightarrow$  minimum degrees of  $f_n(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

$f_n(x) \rightarrow g(x)$  if for every  $N > 0$ ,  $\exists n_0$  so that if  $n > n_0$  then  $f_n(x)$  and  $g(x)$  agree up to terms in  $x^N$ .

### Exercises

1. Show that  $|\cdot|_u$  is a metric.
2. Show that  $|f(x)g(x)|_u = |f(x)|_u |g(x)|_u$ .
3. Show that  $|\cdot|_u$  satisfies the ultrametric inequality:

$$|f(x) + g(x)|_u \leq \max\{|f(x)|_u, |g(x)|_u\}.$$

If  $|f(x)|_u \neq |g(x)|_u$ , we have equality in the previous inequality.

### Example:

Let  $f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n x^k$ . Then  $f_n(x) \rightarrow \sum_{k \geq 0} x^k$ . Let  $f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k$ . Then  $f_n(x) \rightarrow \sum_{k \geq 0} a_k x^k$ . Ultrametric convergence is easy!

**Exercise** Prove:

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 $\sum_{n \geq 0} f_n(x)$  converges with respect to  $|\cdot|_u \Leftrightarrow |f_n(x)|_u \rightarrow 0$ .  
And,  $\prod_{n \geq 0} h_n(x)$  converges  $\Leftrightarrow h_n(x) \rightarrow 1 \Leftrightarrow h_n(x) - 1 \rightarrow 0$ .

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Things can still get strange: e.g.  $f_n(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} n!x^n$  is a perfectly valid power series.

$h(x) = (1+x)(1+x^2)(1+x^4)(1+x^8)\cdots = \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} (1+x^{2^i})$  converges to  $1+x+x^2+x^3+\cdots$ .

### Exercise

Prove this by

1. uniqueness of binary representations.
2. showing  $(1-x)h(x) = 1$  and  $(1-x)(1+x+x^2+x^3+\cdots) = 1$ , and hence  $h(x) = 1+x+x^2+x^3+\cdots$ .