

(L6) (April 3, 2020) | Let me still return to ① the proof of the equivalence
 $(a_n) \subset \mathbb{C}[\text{holon}] \iff \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \text{ holon.}$ In the previous lecture. In the proof of \Leftarrow it is simpler to take any $i_0 \in \{0, 1, \dots\} \setminus \{s.t. J_{i_0} \neq \emptyset\}$ (i.e. $g_{i_0}(x) \neq 0$) and then any $j_0 \in J_{i_0}$. It is more precise to set $m = i_0 - j_0$ and to look at the coeff. of a_{n+m} where n is a formal variable and $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ is fixed. This coeff. is a sum of several (at least one) elements of $\mathbb{C}[u]$.
(nonzero)

Crucially, in this sum the summands, $\neq 0$ polynomials from $\mathbb{C}[u]$, have mutually distinct degrees and therefore their sum is a $\neq 0$ element of $\mathbb{C}[u]$. (the summand with the max. degree cannot be cancelled). ✉ I will pay two debts from L4, the first one being ~~the~~ another equivalence:

2 Sequence $(a_n) \subset \mathbb{C}$ is a linear recurrence sequence (LRS) \iff the OGF $A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ is rational $= \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ with $P, Q \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, $Q(0) \neq 0$.
Precisely

First we define LRS. A sequence $(a_n) =$

$(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) \in \mathbb{C}$ is a LRS if $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ ②

$\exists c_1, c_2, \dots, c_q \in \mathbb{C}, c_q \neq 0$, s.t. for every $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$,

$$a_{n+q} = c_1 a_{n+q-1} + c_2 a_{n+q-2} + \dots + c_q a_n. \quad \text{For } q=0 \text{ the RHS}$$

is \emptyset , we define it as 0 and get the zero sequence

with ~~a_n~~ $a_n = 0$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$. this is the same definition as we gave earlier, only now the recurrence holds for every $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and not ~~just~~ for every $n > n_0$.

A well known example of a LRS is the Fibonacci numbers (F_n) with $F_0 = F_1 = 1$

and $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$, so $(F_n) = (1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, \dots)$. ~~$(a_n) = (1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$~~ is also a LRS, given by the recurrence

$$a_{n+2} = a_n (= 0 \cdot a_{n+1} + 1 \cdot a_n). \quad \text{Exercise for you}$$

Prove that the eventually constant sequence $(a_n) = (1, 0, 2, 3, 4, 2020, 2020, 2020, 2020, \dots)$, $a_n = 2020$ for every $n \geq 5$, is not a LRS.

The precise version of the above equivalence is follows.

the Catalan #1

(*) For the 4 proofs that (a_n) is not a LRS.)

Theorem $(\alpha_n) = (\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \dots) \subset \mathbb{C}$ is a LRS (3)



\exists polynomials $p, q \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ s.t. $q(0) \neq 0$, $p(x) = 0$ or $\deg(p) < \deg(q)$, and $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n x^n = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$.

Before plunging in the proof we have to explain, of course, what exactly does the equality mean.

It is an equality in the ring $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$ of formal power series. In the equality we have three elements of it, $A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \alpha_n x^n$, $p(x)$ and $q(x)$, where $q(x) \neq 0$, and the equality claims that $A(x) = p(x) \cdot q(x)^{-1}$. Here, is the multiplicative inverse in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$ to $q(x)$. So how are these inverses defined? The elements of $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$ are the formal linear combinations $((+))$ $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ of the powers x^n , $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$, with complex coefficients $b_n \in \mathbb{C}$. Addition and multiplication are defined in $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$ as follows. x is a formal variable.

$((a_n))$ is now a generic sequence, not the one from the above theorem) (4)
 $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n + \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n :=$
 $\sum_{n \geq 0} (a_n + b_n) x^n$ and
 addition in \mathbb{C}
 $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n \cdot \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{g=0}^n a_g b_{n-g} \right) x^n$
 multiplication in $\mathbb{C}[\![x]\!]$
 multiplication and addition in \mathbb{C} .

This is also sometimes called the Cauchy product of (formal) power series. Exercise
 Show that $(\mathbb{C}[\![x]\!], +, \cdot)$, with the neutral elements $0 = 0 \cdot x^0 + 0 \cdot x^1 + \dots$ and $1 = 1 \cdot x^0 + 0 \cdot x^1 + 0 \cdot x^2 + \dots$, is a ring (i.e. satisfies all actions of a ring)

Proposition $\mathbb{C}[\![x]\!]$ is an integral domain (*)
Proof: Let $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n, \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n \neq 0$ elements of $\mathbb{C}[\![x]\!]$. Let m_0 be the minimum n s.t. $a_n \neq 0$ and n_0 be $-1 - b_n \neq 0$. Then $\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n \cdot \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n x^n =$
(*) This is an i.d.: $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, ab = 0_R \Rightarrow a = 0_R \vee b = 0_R$

$$= a_{n_0} b_{n_0} X^{n_0 + n_0} + \dots + X^{n_0 + n_0 + 1} + \dots \neq 0 \text{ in } \mathbb{C}[x]. \quad (5)$$

$\underbrace{\neq 0}_{\neq 0}$ Thus $\mathbb{C}[x]$ is an integral domain.

The unique non-negative integer $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ s.t. $a_n \neq 0$ in $\sum a_n x^n \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ is in fact called the order of $A(x)$ and denoted $\text{ord}(A(x))$. We set $\text{ord}(0) = -\infty$. Exercise

Prove that for every $A, B \in \mathbb{C}[x]$, $\text{ord}(A \cdot B) =$
 $= \text{ord}(A) + \text{ord}(B)$.

Now we come to the question of units in the ring $\mathbb{C}[x]$ (i.e. invertible elements) which has to be clarified before we prove the above theorem.

Proposition $A(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ is a unit if and only if $\text{ord}(A(x)) = 0$, i.e. $A(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots$ with $a_0 \neq 0$.

Proof: Suppose that $A(x)$ is a unit, there is a $B(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x]$ s.t. $A(x)B(x) = 1 (= 1x^0 + 0x^1 + \dots)$. By the exercise, $\text{ord}(A) + \text{ord}(B) = \text{ord}(1) = 0$, which implies that $\text{ord}(A) + \text{ord}(B) > 0$ (because the values of $\text{ord}(.)$ are $\mathbb{N}_0 \cup \{-\infty\}$). Suppose that $\text{ord}(A) = 0$. We are looking for

$$a \cdot B(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots \in C[[x]] \text{ s.t. } A \cdot B = 1. \quad (6)$$

B'' This is equivalent with the infinite linear non-homogeneous system of equations (*):
 $a_0 b_0 = 1, a_0 b_1 + a_1 b_0 = 0, a_0 b_2 + a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_0 = 0, \dots$
 where $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots \in C$ are given and b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots are the unknowns. Since $a_0 \neq 0$, we see that the system has a unique solution $b_0, b_1, \dots \in C$:
 $b_0 = \frac{1}{a_0} \rightarrow b_1 = \frac{1}{a_0} (-a_1 b_0), b_2 = \frac{1}{a_0} (-a_1 b_1 - a_2 b_0), \dots$, and so on. Thus A has an inverse B and is a unit. \square

Now the condition $a_0 \neq 0$ in the theorem above is clear. Of course, we take $C[[x]]$ as contained in $C[[x]]$. **Exercise** In $C[[x]]$, $\frac{1}{1-x} = ?$

And $\frac{1}{1+x} = ?$

Now we are theoretically prepared to prove the proof of the above

theorem on LRS but of course do not have time for it. ~~and I will~~ Present the proof in the next lecture. See you next week.

~~(*)~~ In better English: inf. system of hom. lin. eqs.