## Catalan Numbers

Richard P. Stanley

## An OEIS entry

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$C_{0}=1, C_{1}=2, C_{2}=3, C_{3}=5, C_{4}=14, \ldots$
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Comments. ... This is probably the longest entry in OEIS, and rightly so.

## Catalan monograph

R. Stanley, Catalan Numbers, Cambridge University Press, 2015.

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Includes 214 combinatorial interpretations of $C_{n}$ and 68 additional problems.

## History

Sharabiin Myangat，also known as Minggatu， Ming＇antu（明安图），and Jing An （c．1692－c．1763）：a Mongolian astronomer， mathematician，and topographic scientist who worked at the Qing court in China．

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Typical result（1730＇s）：

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\sin (2 \alpha)=2 \sin \alpha-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{C_{n-1}}{4^{n-1}} \sin ^{2 n+1} \alpha
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No combinatorics，no further work in China．

# Manuscript of Ming Antu 

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## More history, via Igor Pak

- Euler (1751): conjectured formula for number $C_{n}$ of triangulations of a convex $(n+2)$-gon (definition of Catalan numbers). In other words, draw $n-1$ noncrossing diagonals of a convex polygon with $n+2$ sides.



## Completion of proof

- Goldbach and Segner (1758-1759): helped Euler complete the proof, in pieces.
- Lamé (1838): first self-contained, complete proof.


## Catalan

- Eugène Charles Catalan (1838): wrote $C_{n}$ in the form $\frac{(2 n)!}{n!(n+1)!}$ and showed it counted (nonassociative) bracketings (or parenthesizations) of a string of $n+1$ letters.


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Born in 1814 in Bruges (now in Belgium, then under Dutch rule). Studied in France and worked in France and Liège, Belgium. Died in Liège in 1894.

## Why "Catalan numbers"?

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- Riordan (1968): used the term in his book Combinatorial Identities. Finally caught on.
- Martin Gardner (1976): used the term in his Mathematical Games column in Scientific American. Real popularity began.


## The primary recurrence

$$
C_{n+1}=\sum_{k=0}^{n} C_{k} C_{n-k}, \quad C_{0}=1
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## Solving the recurrence

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Let $\boldsymbol{y}=\sum_{n \geq 0} C_{n} x^{n}$.
Multiply recurrence by $x^{n}$ and sum on $n \geq 0$.

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$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} C_{n+1} x^{n}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} C_{k} C_{n-k}\right) x^{n}
$$

## A quadratic equation

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Now $x \sum_{n \geq 0} C_{n+1} x^{n}=\sum_{n \geq 1} C_{n} x^{n}=y-1$.
Moreover, $\sum_{k=0}^{n} C_{k} C_{n-k}$ is the coefficient of $x^{n}$ in $\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} C_{n} x^{n}\right)^{2}=y^{2}$, since in general, $\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k} b_{n-k}$ is the coefficient of $x^{n}$ in the product
$\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n} x^{n}\right)\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} b_{n} x^{n}\right)$.

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$\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n} x^{n}\right)\left(\sum_{n \geq 0} b_{n} x^{n}\right)$.

$$
\Rightarrow \frac{y-1}{x}=y^{2} \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}^{2}-\boldsymbol{y}+\mathbf{1}=\mathbf{0}
$$

## Solving the quadratic equation

$$
x y^{2}-y+1=0 \Rightarrow y=\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1-4 x}}{2 x}
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Well, in general (Taylor series)

$$
(1+u)^{\alpha}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\binom{\alpha}{n} u^{n}=\sum_{n \geq 0} \alpha(\alpha-1) \cdots(\alpha-n+1) \frac{u^{n}}{n!}
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& (1+u)^{\alpha}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\binom{\alpha}{n} u^{n}=\sum_{n \geq 0} \alpha(\alpha-1) \cdots(\alpha-n+1) \frac{u^{n}}{n!} . \\
& \text { Let } u=-4 x, \alpha=\frac{1}{2}, \text { to get } \\
& \quad \sqrt{1-4 x}=1-2 x-2 x^{2}+\cdots .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Which sign?

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 0} C_{n} x^{n}=\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1-4 x}}{2 x}$.

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Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 0} C_{n} x^{n}=\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1-4 x}}{2 x}$.
The plus sign gives

$$
\frac{1+\left(1-2 x-2 x^{2}+\cdots\right)}{2 x}=\frac{1}{x}-1-x+\cdots,
$$

which makes no sense. The minus sign gives

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

which is correct.

## A formula for $C_{n}$

We get

$$
\begin{aligned}
y & =\frac{1}{2 x}(1-\sqrt{1-4 x}) \\
& =\frac{1}{2 x}\left(1-\sum_{n \geq 0}\binom{1 / 2}{n}(-4 x)^{n}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\binom{1 / 2}{n}=\frac{\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \cdots\left(-\frac{2 n-3}{2}\right)}}{n!}$.

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where $\binom{1 / 2}{n}=\frac{\frac{1}{2}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \cdots\left(-\frac{2 n-3}{2}\right)}{n!}$.
Simplifies to $y=\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2 n}{n} x^{n}$, so

$$
C_{n}=\frac{1}{\boldsymbol{n}+1}\binom{\mathbf{n}}{\boldsymbol{n}}=\frac{(2 n)!}{n!(n+1)!}
$$

## Other combinatorial interpretations

$\mathcal{P}_{n}:=\{$ triangulations of convex $(n+2)$-gon $\}$
$\Rightarrow \# \mathcal{P}_{n}=C_{n}($ where $\boldsymbol{\#} \boldsymbol{S}=$ number of elements of $S)$
We want other combinatorial interpretations of $C_{n}$, i.e., other sets $\mathcal{S}_{n}$ for which $C_{n}=\# \mathcal{S}_{n}$.

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$\mathcal{P}_{n}:=\{$ triangulations of convex $(n+2)$-gon $\}$
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We want other combinatorial interpretations of $C_{n}$, i.e., other sets $\mathcal{S}_{n}$ for which $C_{n}=\# \mathcal{S}_{n}$.
bijective proof: show that $C_{n}=\# \mathcal{S}_{n}$ by giving a bijection

$$
\boldsymbol{\varphi}: \mathcal{T}_{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_{n}
$$

(or $\mathcal{S}_{n} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}_{n}$ ), where we already know $\# \mathcal{T}_{n}=C_{n}$.

## Bijection

Reminder: a bijection $\varphi: S \rightarrow T$ is a function that is one-to-one and onto, that is, for every $t \in T$ there is a unique $s \in S$ for which $\varphi(s)=t$.

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If $S, T$ are finite and $\varphi: S \rightarrow T$ is a bijection, then $\# S=\# T$ (the "best" way to prove $\# S=\# T$ ).

## Binary trees

4. Binary trees with $n$ vertices (each vertex has a left subtree and a right subtree, which may be empty)


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## Bijection with triangulations



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## Binary parenthesizations

3. Binary parenthesizations or bracketings of a string of $n+1$ letters

$$
(x x \cdot x) x \quad x(x x \cdot x) \quad(x \cdot x x) x \quad x(x \cdot x x) \quad x x \cdot x x
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## Binary parenthesizations

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$(x x \cdot x) x \quad x(x x \cdot x) \quad(x \cdot x x) x \quad x(x \cdot x x) \quad x x \cdot x x$

$$
((x(x x)) x)(x((x x)(x x)))
$$

## Binary parenthesizations

3. Binary parenthesizations or bracketings of a string of $n+1$ letters

$$
\begin{gathered}
(x x \cdot x) x \quad x(x x \cdot x) \quad(x \cdot x x) x \quad x(x \cdot x x) \quad x x \cdot x x \\
((\boldsymbol{x}(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x})) \boldsymbol{x})(\boldsymbol{x}((\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x})(\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x})))
\end{gathered}
$$

## Bijection with binary trees



## Plane trees

Plane tree: subtrees of a vertex are linearly ordered
6. Plane trees with $n+1$ vertices


## Plane tree recurrence



## Plane tree recurrence



## Bijection with binary trees



## The ballot problem

Bertrand's ballot problem: first published by W. A. Whitworth in 1878 but named after Joseph Louis François Bertrand who rediscovered it in 1887 (one of the first results in probability theory).

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Special case: there are two candidates $A$ and $B$ in an election. Each receives $n$ votes. What is the probability that $A$ will never trail $B$ during the count of votes?

Example. $A A B A B B B A A B$ is bad, since after seven votes, $A$ receives 3 while $B$ receives 4 .

## Definition of ballot sequence

Encode a vote for $A$ by 1 , and a vote for $B$ by -1 (abbreviated - ). Clearly a sequence $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{2 n}$ of $n$ each of 1 and -1 is allowed if and only if $\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i} \geq 0$ for all $1 \leq k \leq 2 n$. Such a sequence is called a ballot sequence.

## Ballot sequences

77. Ballot sequences, i.e., sequences of $n$ 1's and $n-1$ 's such that every partial sum is nonnegative (with -1 denoted simply as below)
$111---11-1--11--1-1-11--1-1-1-$

## Ballot sequences

77. Ballot sequences, i.e., sequences of $n$ 1's and $n-1$ 's such that every partial sum is nonnegative (with -1 denoted simply as below)
$111---11-1--11--1-\quad 1-11--\quad 1-1-1-$
Note. Answer to original problem (probability that a sequence of $n$ each of 1 's and -1 's is a ballot sequence) is therefore

$$
\frac{C_{n}}{\binom{2 n}{n}}=\frac{\frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2 n}{n}}{\binom{2 n}{n}}=\frac{1}{n+1}
$$

## Bijection with plane trees


depth first order or preorder

## Bijection with plane trees


down an edge: +1 , up an edge: -1
$111-1--1-11-11-1-$

## Combinatorial proof

Let $\boldsymbol{B}_{n}$ denote the number of ballot sequences $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{2 n}$. We will give a direct combinatorial proof (no generating functions) that
$B_{n}=\frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2 n}{n}$.

## Binomial coefficients

Reminder: If $0 \leq k \leq n$, then $\binom{n}{k}$ is the number of $k$-element subsets of an $n$-element set.

$$
\binom{n}{k}=\frac{n(n-1) \cdots(n-k+1)}{k!}=\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}
$$

Example. $\binom{4}{2}=6$ : six 2 -element subsets of $\{1,2,3,4\}$ are

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
12 & 13 & 23 & 14 & 24 & 34 .
\end{array}
$$

## Cyclic shifts

cyclic shift of a sequence $b_{0}, \ldots, b_{m}$ : any sequence

$$
b_{i}, b_{i+1}, \ldots, b_{m}, b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{i-1}, \quad 0 \leq i \leq m
$$

There are $m+1$ cyclic shifts of $b_{0}, \ldots, b_{m}$, but they need not be distinct.

## The key lemma

Lemma. Let $a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 n}$ be a sequence with $n+1$ terms equal to 1 and $n$ terms equal to -1 . All $2 n+1$ cyclic shifts are distinct since $n+1$ and $n$ are relatively prime. Exactly one of these cyclic shifts $a_{i}, a_{i+1}, \ldots, a_{i-1}$ has the property that $a_{i}=1$ and $a_{i+1}, a_{i+2}, \ldots, a_{i-1}$ is a ballot sequence.

## Example of key lemma

Let $n=4$ and consider the sequence
$1-11-1--1$. Five cyclic shifts begin with 1 :

| 1 | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | $:$ | no |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | $:$ | no |
| 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | $:$ | no |
| 1 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | - | $:$ | no |
| 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | $:$ | yes! |

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| 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | $:$ | no |
| 1 | - | 1 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | $:$ | no |
| 1 | - | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | - | $:$ | no |
| 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | - | - | $:$ | yes! |

Proof of key lemma: straightforward induction argument not given here.

## Enumeration of ballot sequences

The number of sequences $1=a_{0}, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 n}$ with $n+1$ terms equal to 1 and $n$ terms equal to -1 is $\binom{2 n}{n}$. (Choose $n$ of the terms $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{2 n}$ to equal 1.)

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There are $n+1$ cyclic shifts of this sequence that begin with 1. Exactly 1 of them gives a ballot sequence (of length $2 n$ ) when you remove the first term.

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There are $n+1$ cyclic shifts of this sequence that begin with 1. Exactly 1 of them gives a ballot sequence (of length $2 n$ ) when you remove the first term.

Therefore the number of ballot sequences of length $2 n$ is $\frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2 n}{n}=C_{n}$.

## Dyck paths

25. Dyck paths of length $2 n$, i.e., lattice paths from $(0,0)$ to $(2 n, 0)$ with steps $(1,1)$ and $(1,-1)$, never falling below the $x$-axis


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Walther von Dyck (1856-1934)

## Bijection with ballot sequences



For each upstep, record 1. For each downstep, record -1 .

## Noncrossing chords

59. $n$ nonintersecting chords joining $2 n$ points on the circumference of a circle


## Bijection with ballot sequences



## Bijection with ballot sequences


$11-1--11--1-$

## 312-avoiding permutations

116. Permutations $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ of $1,2, \ldots, n$ for which there does not exist $i<j<k$ and $a_{j}<a_{k}<a_{i}$ (called 312-avoiding) permutations)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
123 & 132 & 213 & 231 & 321
\end{array}
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34251768

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\begin{array}{lllll}
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$$

3425768
part of the subject of pattern avoidance

## Bijection with binary trees


$T(34251768)$

## The tree for 34251768



## The tree for 34251768



Note. If we read the vertices in preorder, we obtain 12345678.

Exercise. This gives a bijection between 312-avoiding permutations and binary trees.

## 321-avoiding permutations

Another example of pattern avoidance:
115. Permutations $a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n}$ of $1,2, \ldots, n$ with longest decreasing subsequence of length at most two (i.e., there does not exist $i<j<k$, $\left.a_{i}>a_{j}>a_{k}\right)$, called 321-avoiding permutations

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\begin{array}{lllll}
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## 321-avoiding permutations

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$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
123 & 213 & 132 & 312 & 231
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$$

more subtle: no obvious decomposition into two pieces

# Bijection with Dyck paths 

$$
w=412573968
$$

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## Bijection with Dyck paths

$$
w=412573968
$$



## An unexpected interpretation

92. $n$-tuples $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$ of integers $a_{i} \geq 2$ such that in the sequence $1 a_{1} a_{2} \cdots a_{n} 1$, each $a_{i}$ divides the sum of its two neighbors

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
14321 & 13521 & 13231 & 12531 & 12341
\end{array}
$$

## Bijection with ballot sequences

remove largest, insert bar before the element to its left, then replace bar with 1 and a number with -1 , except last two

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$$
125341
$$

## Bijection with ballot sequences

remove largest, insert bar before the element to its left, then replace bar with 1 and a number with -1 , except last two

$$
1 \left\lvert\, \begin{array}{lllll}
2 & 5 & 3 & 4 & 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

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remove largest, insert bar before the element to its left, then replace bar with 1 and a number with -1 , except last two

$$
1|25| 341
$$

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1||25| 341
$$

## Bijection with ballot sequences

remove largest, insert bar before the element to its left, then replace bar with 1 and a number with -1 , except last two

$$
|1| \left\lvert\, 2 \begin{array}{llll}
\mid & 5 \mid & 4 & 1
\end{array}\right.
$$

## Bijection with ballot sequences

remove largest, insert bar before the element to its left, then replace bar with 1 and a number with -1 , except last two

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
|1| \mid & 2 & 5 & 3 & 4 & 1 \\
|1| \mid 2 & 5 \mid 3 & 4 & 1 \\
\rightarrow & 1 & -11 & - & -1-
\end{array}
$$

## Analysis

A65.(b)

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{C_{n}}=? ?
$$

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A65.(b)

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{C_{n}}=? ?
$$

$$
1+1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{5}=2.7
$$

## Analysis

A65.(b)

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{C_{n}}=2+\frac{4 \sqrt{3} \pi}{27}=2.806 \cdots
$$

$$
1+1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{5}=2.7
$$

## Why?

A65.(a)

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{x^{n}}{C_{n}}=\frac{2(x+8)}{(4-x)^{2}}+\frac{24 \sqrt{x} \sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{x}\right)}{(4-x)^{5 / 2}}
$$

## Why?

A65.(a)

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{x^{n}}{C_{n}}=\frac{2(x+8)}{(4-x)^{2}}+\frac{24 \sqrt{x} \sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{x}\right)}{(4-x)^{5 / 2}}
$$

Sketch of solution. Calculus exercise: let

$$
y=2\left(\sin ^{-1} \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{x}\right)^{2}
$$

Then $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{2}\binom{2 n}{n}}$.

## Completion of proof

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{n}\left(\sum_{n}^{n}\right)}$. .

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Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{n}\left(n_{n}^{n}\right)}$. Note that:

$$
\frac{d}{d x} y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n-1}}{n\binom{2 n}{n}}
$$

## Completion of proof

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{n}\left(2_{n}^{2 n}\right)}$. Note that:

$$
x \frac{d}{d x} y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n\binom{2_{n}^{n}}{n}}
$$

## Completion of proof

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{n}\left(n_{n}^{n}\right)}$. Note that:

$$
\frac{d}{d x} x \frac{d}{d x} y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n-1}}{\binom{2 n}{n}}
$$

## Completion of proof

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{n}\left(n_{n}^{n}\right)}$. Note that:

$$
x^{2} \frac{d}{d x} x \frac{d x}{x} y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n+1}}{\binom{\left({ }_{n}^{n}\right)}{n}}
$$

## Completion of proof

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{2}\left(2_{n}^{n}\right)}$. Note that:

$$
\frac{d}{d x} x^{2} \frac{d}{d x} x \frac{d x}{x} y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(n+1) x^{n}}{\binom{2 n}{n}}
$$

## Completion of proof

Recall $y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^{n}}{n^{2}\binom{2 n}{n}}$. Note that:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{d}{d x} x^{2} \frac{d}{d x} x \frac{d x}{x} y=\sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(n+1) x^{n}}{\binom{2 n}{n}} \\
=-1+\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{x^{n}}{C_{n}}
\end{gathered}
$$

etc.

## The last slide



## The last slide



