# Bailey pairs and strange identities 

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## Recap

$q$-hypergeometric series are everywhere!
$q$-series identities are fundamental and beautiful.
The structure of Bailey pairs lies behind many important identities.
Once the iterative framework is set up, results like the Andrews-Gordon identities come easily.

One identity gives infinitely many identities.
Bailey pairs can be used to express Ramanujan's mock theta functions in terms of Appell-type series or indefinite theta functions, whose modular transformation properties were determined by Zwegers.

## Recap

Ramanujan's mock theta functions can then be completed to non-holomorphic modular forms via an Eichler integral.

Standard applications of the Bailey chain do not produce families of $q$-hypergeometric mock theta functions, but a more nuanced approach does.

And the corresponding Bailey pairs have nice applications, including to colored Jones polynomials of certain torus knots and WRT invariants of 3-manifolds.

In fact, the colored Jones polynomials and their cyclotomic coefficients essentially form a Bailey pair!

## Remark

If you thought that the two "mini-courses" at SLC 87 were completely unrelated, see:
S.O. Warnaar, The Bailey lemma and Kostka polynomials, J. Algebraic Combin. 20 (2004), no. 2, 131-171.
(This paper concers a "higher level" Bailey lemma...)

## Outline

(1) Zagier's strange identity and applications
(2) General strange identities
(3) New families of strange identities
(1) Proofs using Bailey pairs

## Zagier's "identity"

Zagier (2001) recorded the "strange identity"

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0}(q)_{n} "="-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 1} n\left(\frac{12}{n}\right) q^{\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24}
$$

Here

$$
\left(\frac{12}{n}\right)= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } n \equiv \pm 1 \quad(\bmod 12) \\ -1, & \text { if } n \equiv \pm 5 \quad(\bmod 12) \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Note that

$$
(q)_{\infty}=\sum_{n \geq 0}\left(\frac{12}{n}\right) q^{\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24}
$$

## Zagier's "identity"

The right-hand side of Zagier's "identity" is

$$
-\frac{1}{2}\left(1-5 q-7 q^{2}+11 q^{5}+13 q^{7}-17 q^{12}-\cdots\right)
$$

This is an analytic function for $|q|<1$.
The left-hand side is not an analytic function on any open subset of $\mathbb{C}$.

So, what does Zagier mean by " $=$ " ?

## Zagier's "identity"

Note that the left-hand side is a finite sum (and hence well-defined) when $q$ is a root of unity.

In particular, if $q^{N}=1$ then

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(q)_{n}=\sum_{n=0}^{N-1}(q)_{n}
$$

Similarly, for any root of unity $\zeta$, the left-hand side is a well-defined power series in $t$ when

$$
q=\zeta e^{-t}=\zeta\left(\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(-1)^{k} t^{k}}{k!}\right)
$$

## Zagier's "identity"

If we replace $q$ by $\zeta e^{-t}$ on the right-hand side, classical results in asymptotic analysis give that as $t \rightarrow 0^{+}$,

$$
-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 1} n\left(\frac{12}{n}\right) \zeta^{\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24} e^{-t\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24} \sim \text { a power series in } t
$$

The " = " in Zagier's "identity" means that at any root of unity these two power series are equal.

## Zagier's "identity"

For example, at $q=1$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \geq 0}\left(e^{-t} ; e^{-t}\right)_{n} & =3+11 t+\frac{133}{2} t^{2}+\frac{3389}{6} t^{3}+\frac{148177}{24} t^{4}+\cdots \\
& \sim-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 1} n\left(\frac{12}{n}\right) e^{-t\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24}
\end{aligned}
$$

At $q=-1$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \geq 0}\left(-e^{-t} ;-e^{-t}\right)_{n} & =1+t+\frac{3}{2} t^{2}+\frac{19}{6} t^{3}+\frac{207}{24} t^{4}+\cdots \\
& \sim-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 1} n\left(\frac{12}{n}\right)(-1)^{\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24} e^{-t\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Applications

It turns out that Zagier's strange identity has many interesting applications.

Let

$$
F(q)=\sum_{n \geq 0}(q)_{n} .
$$

This is called the "Kontsevich-Zagier function".

## Applications - values of $F(q)$

Habiro (2000) and Lê (2003) showed that the colored Jones polynomial of the trefoil knot can be written

$$
J_{N}(q)=q^{1-N} \sum_{n \geq 0} q^{-n N}\left(q^{1-N}\right)_{n}
$$

Therefore

$$
F\left(e^{2 \pi i / N}\right)=J_{N}\left(e^{2 \pi i / N}\right) \text { (The Kashaev invariant). }
$$

Using the strange identity, one can show that if $L$ is such that $\zeta^{\frac{L}{12}}=1$, then

$$
F(\zeta)=\frac{1}{4 L} \sum_{m=1}^{L} m^{2}\left(\frac{12}{m}\right) \zeta^{\left(m^{2}-1\right) / 24}
$$

## Applications - quantum modularity

A quantum modular form of weight $k$ is a function $f: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that for all $\gamma=\left(\begin{array}{ll}a & b \\ c & d\end{array}\right)$ in (a subgroup of) $\mathrm{SL}_{2}(\mathbb{Z})$, one has that

$$
g_{\gamma}(x)=f\left(\frac{a x+b}{c x+d}\right)-\bullet(c x+d)^{k} f(x)
$$

is a a continuous (or smooth) function on $\mathbb{R} \backslash\left\{\frac{-d}{c}\right\}$.
Using the strange identity one can show that the function $\phi: \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ defined by

$$
\phi(x)=e^{\pi i x / 12} F\left(e^{2 \pi i x}\right)
$$

is a weight $3 / 2$ quantum modular form.

## Applications - congruences for Fishburn numbers

The Kontsevich-Zagier series at $1-q$,

$$
F(1-q)=1+q+2 q^{2}+5 q^{3}+15 q^{4}+53 q^{5}+\cdots,
$$

is a well-known combinatorial generating function.
It counts Fishburn matrices, $(2+2)$-free posets, ascent sequences, linearized chord diagrams,... (Bousquet-Mélou, Claesson, Dukes, Kitaev, 2010)

For example, a Fishburn matrix is an upper-triangular matrix with non-negative integer entries such that no row or column consists only of zeros.

## Applications - congruences for Fishburn numbers

The five Fishburn matrices for $n=3$ are

$$
\text { (3), }\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 1 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}
2 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 2
\end{array}\right),\left(\begin{array}{lll}
1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Using the strange identity, one can show that the Fishburn numbers satisfy many Ramanujan-type congruences, like

$$
\begin{aligned}
a(5 n+r) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 5), r \in\{3,4\} \\
a(7 n+6) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 7) \\
a(11 n+s) \equiv 0 \quad(\bmod 11), s \in\{8,9,10\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Strange identity - definition

Generalizing Zagier's example, a strange identity

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0}(q)_{n} f_{n}(q)^{"}=" \sum_{n \geq 0} n^{v} \chi(n) q^{\left(n^{2}-a\right) / b}
$$

means that for $q=\zeta e^{-t}$, the right-hand side has an asymptotic expansion as a power series as $t \rightarrow 0^{+}$and this power series is given by the left-hand side at $\zeta e^{-t}$.

Here the $f_{n}$ are polynomials, $v \in\{0,1\}, a \geq 0$ and $b>0$ are integers, and $\chi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is a periodic function such that:
(i) $\chi(n) \neq 0$ if and only if $\frac{n^{2}-a}{b} \in \mathbb{Z}$,
(ii) The function $n \rightarrow \zeta^{\left(n^{2}-a\right) / b} \chi(n)$ is a periodic function with mean value zero for any root of unity $\zeta$.

## Strange identity - definition

This definition can be relaxed in several ways, notably by replacing $(q)_{n}$ on the left-hand side by other $q$-factorials, such as $\left(q ; q^{2}\right)_{n}$ or $\frac{(q)_{n}}{(-q)_{n}}$, and appropriately restricting to a subset of the roots of unity.

In these two cases, for example, we only consider the odd roots of unity.

One can also let $v$ be any positive integer.

## General results

Following Zagier's work, many applications of Zagier's strange identity were extended to general strange identities:

1) Bringmann-Rolen and Goswami-Osburn showed that $q$-hypergeometric series satisfying a strange identity are quantum modular forms.
2) Guerzhoy-Kent-Rolen and Ahlgren-Kim-L. showed that if $G(q)$ satisfies a strange identity, then the coefficients of $G(1-q)$ will have many Ramanujan-type congruences.
3) Goswami-Jha-Kim-Osburn found an asymptotic formula for the coefficients of $G(1-q)$ when $G(q)$ satisfies a strange identity.

## Hikami's strange identity

Many nice results and very few examples.

Aside from a few isolated examples, until recently the only other strange identities are due to Hikami (2006).

We need the $q$-binomial coefficient (or "Gaussian polynomial") defined by

$$
\left[\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right]_{q}= \begin{cases}\frac{(q)_{n}}{(q)_{n-k}(q)_{k}}, & \text { if } 0 \leq k \leq n, \\
0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Hikami's strange identity

For $0 \leq a \leq k-1$ we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0}(q)_{n_{k}} q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{k-1}^{2}+n_{a+1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{i+1}+\delta_{i, a} \\
n_{i}
\end{array}\right] \\
"="-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{8 k+4}^{(a)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(2 k-2 a-1)^{2}}{8(2 k+1)}}
\end{gathered}
$$

where $\chi_{8 k+4}^{(a)}(n)$ is the even periodic function modulo $8 k+4$ defined by
$\chi_{8 k+4}^{(a)}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}1, & \text { if } n \equiv 2 k-2 a-1 \text { or } 6 k+2 a+5 & (\bmod 8 k+4), \\ -1, & \text { if } n \equiv 2 k+2 a+3 \text { or } 6 k-2 a+1 & (\bmod 8 k+4), \\ 0, & \text { otherwise } . & \end{array}\right.$

## Hikami's strange identity

The case $k=1$ is Zagier's strange identity.
For $k=2$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n_{1}, n_{2} \geq 0}(q)_{n_{2}} q^{n_{1}^{2}+n_{1}}\left[\begin{array}{l}
n_{2} \\
n_{1}
\end{array}\right] \\
& " "="-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{20}^{(0)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-9}{40}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n_{1}, n_{2} \geq 0}(q)_{n_{2}} q^{n_{1}^{2}}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{2}+1 \\
n_{1}
\end{array}\right] \\
& "="-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{20}^{(1)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-1}{40}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Hikami's strange identity - Remarks

One can deduce formulas, quantum modularity, asymptotics, congruences, etc.

The case $(k, 0)$ corresponds to the Kashaev invariant for the torus knot $(2,2 k+1)$.

Very recently another family of strange identities was found, corresponding to the torus knots $\left(3,2^{t}\right)$.

Can any of this be understood in the context of Bailey pairs?
Yes!

## Results (L., 2022)

Here is a sample of what one can prove using the Bailey machinery.
Let $\chi_{4 k}(n)$ be the even periodic function modulo $4 k$ defined by

$$
\chi_{4 k}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1, & \text { if } n \equiv k-1 \text { or } 3 k+1 & (\bmod 4 k) \\
-1, & \text { if } n \equiv k+1 \text { or } 3 k-1 & (\bmod 4 k) \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

## Results (L., 2022)

Then

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\text { 1) } \sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0}(q)_{n_{k}} \frac{q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{k-1}^{2}+n_{1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}}}{(-q)_{n_{1}}} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{i+1} \\
n_{i}
\end{array}\right] \\
"="-\left(1+\delta_{k, 1}\right) \sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{4 k}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(k-1)^{2}}{4 k}}
\end{array}
$$

and
2) $\sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0}\left(q^{2} ; q^{2}\right)_{n_{k}} \frac{q^{2 n_{1}^{2}+2 n_{1}+\cdots+2 n_{k-1}^{2}+2 n_{k-1}}\left(q ; q^{2}\right)_{n_{1}}}{(-q)_{2 n_{1}+1}} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}n_{i+1} \\ n_{i}\end{array}\right]_{q^{2}}$

$$
"="-\left(1+\delta_{k, 1}\right) \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{8 k-4}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(2 k-2)^{2}}{8 k-4}} .
$$

## Results (L., 2022)

Let $\chi_{8 k}^{(a)}(n)$ be the even periodic function modulo $8 k$ defined by
$\chi_{8 k}^{(a)}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}1, & \text { if } n \equiv 2 k-2 a-1 \text { or } 6 k+2 a+1 & (\bmod 8 k), \\ -1, & \text { if } n \equiv 2 k+2 a+1 \text { or } 6 k-2 a-1 & (\bmod 8 k), \\ 0, & \text { otherwise. } & \end{array}\right.$
Then
3) $\sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0}\left(q^{2} ; q^{2}\right)_{n_{k}} \frac{q^{2 n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+2 n_{k-1}^{2}+2 n_{a+1}+\cdots+2 n_{k-1}}}{\left(-q ; q^{2}\right)_{n_{1}+\delta_{a, 0}}^{k-1}} \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left[\begin{array}{c}n_{i+1}+\delta_{i, a} \\ n_{i}\end{array}\right]_{q^{2}}$

$$
"="-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{8 k}^{(a)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(2 k-2 a-1)^{2}}{8 k}} .
$$

## Results (L., 2022)

There are many more.

One has all of the usual applications.

In addition, one obtains interesting $q$-series identities at roots of unity by comparing strange identities.

## Results (L., 2022)

Comparing the first two strange identities we have that
$\sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{2 k-1} \geq 0}(q)_{n_{2 k-1}} \frac{q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{2 k-2}^{2}+n_{1}+\cdots+n_{2 k-2}}}{(-q)_{n_{1}}} \prod_{i=1}^{2 k-2}\left[\begin{array}{c}n_{i+1} \\ n_{i}\end{array}\right]$
$=2 \sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0}\left(q^{2} ; q^{2}\right)_{n_{k}} \frac{q^{2 n_{1}^{2}+2 n_{1}+\cdots+2 n_{k-1}^{2}+2 n_{k-1}}\left(q ; q^{2}\right)_{n_{1}}}{(-q)_{2 n_{1}+1}} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}n_{i+1} \\ n_{i}\end{array}\right]_{q^{2}}$
at any odd root of unity (in which case the sums become finite), but of course not as functions inside the unit disk (where neither series converges, anyway).

The case $k=1$ reads

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(q)_{n}}{(-q)_{n}}=2 \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(q)_{2 n}}{(-q)_{2 n+1}}
$$

## Proof of Zagier's identity

Using $q$-difference equations, Zagier showed that for $|x|<1$,

$$
(1-x) \sum_{n \geq 0}(x q)_{n} x^{n}=\sum_{n \geq 0}(-1)^{n} x^{3 n} q^{n(3 n+1) / 2}\left(1-x^{2} q^{2 n+1}\right)
$$

We want to take $\left.\frac{d}{d x}\right|_{x=1}$.
Zagier added and subtracted $(x)_{\infty}$ on the left-hand side to obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (1-x) \sum_{n \geq 0}\left((x q)_{n}-(x q)_{\infty}\right) x^{n}+(x q)_{\infty} \\
& \quad=\sum_{n \geq 0}(-1)^{n} x^{3 n} q^{n(3 n+1) / 2}\left(1-x^{2} q^{2 n+1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proof of Zagier's identity

Replacing $x$ by $x^{2}$ on both sides, multiplying by $x$, and taking $\left.\frac{d}{d x}\right|_{x=1}$ gives the "sum of tails" identity,

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 \sum_{n \geq 0} & \left((q)_{n}-(q)_{\infty}\right)+(q)_{\infty}\left(-1+2 \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{q^{n}}{1-q^{n}}\right) \\
& =-\sum_{n \geq 1} n\left(\frac{12}{n}\right) q^{\left(n^{2}-1\right) / 24}
\end{aligned}
$$

Letting $q$ approach a root of unity, we obtain Zagier's strange identity, since $(q)_{\infty}$ vanishes to infinite order.

## Proof of Hikami's identity

Using $q$-difference equations and some impressive calculations, Hikami showed that

$$
\begin{gathered}
(1-x) \sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0}(x q)_{n_{k}} q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{k-1}^{2}+n_{a+1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}} \\
\times x^{2 n_{1}+\cdots+2 n_{k-1}+n_{k}} \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{i+1}+\delta_{a, i} \\
n_{i}
\end{array}\right] \\
=\sum_{n \geq 0}(-1)^{n} x^{(2 k+1) n} q^{\binom{n+1}{2}+(a+1) n^{2}+(k-a-1)\left(n^{2}+n\right)} \\
\times\left(1-x^{2(a+1)} q^{(a+1)(2 n+1)}\right) \\
= \\
\sum_{n \geq 0} \chi_{8 k+4}^{(a)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(2 k-2 a-1)^{2}}{8(2 k+1)}} x^{\frac{n-(2 k-2 a-1)}{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Proof of Hikami's identity

Arguing along the lines of Zagier (with considerably more complications), Hikami arrived at his strange identity.

One new element he required was the "Andrews-Gordon variant"

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sum_{n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k-1} \geq 0} \frac{q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{k-1}^{2}+n_{a+1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}}}{(q)_{n_{k-1}}} \prod_{i=1}^{k-2}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{i+1}+\delta_{a, i} \\
n_{i}
\end{array}\right] \\
=\frac{1}{(q)_{\infty}} \sum_{n \geq 0} \chi_{8 m+4}^{(a)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(2 k-2 a-1)^{2}}{8(2 k+1)}} \\
=\prod_{n \neq 0, \pm(a+1)} \prod_{(\bmod 2 k+1)} \frac{1}{1-q^{n}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Bailey pairs

How does this all fit into the framework of Bailey pairs?

Recall from classical work of Bailey that if $\left(\alpha_{n}, \beta_{n}\right)$ is a Bailey pair relative to $a$, then
$\sum_{n \geq 0}(b)_{n}(c)_{n}(a q / b c)^{n} \beta_{n}=\frac{(a q / b)_{\infty}(a q / c)_{\infty}}{(a q)_{\infty}(a q / b c)_{\infty}} \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(b)_{n}(c)_{n}(a q / b c)^{n}}{(a q / b)_{n}(a q / c)_{n}} \alpha_{n}$.
Using $(a, b, c)=\left(x^{2} q, x q, q\right)$ we have the key identity

$$
(1-x) \sum_{n \geq 0}(x q)_{n}(q)_{n} x^{n} \beta_{n}=\left(1-x^{2} q\right) \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{(q)_{n}}{\left(x^{2} q\right)_{n}} x^{n} \alpha_{n}
$$

## Bailey pairs

Still using work of Bailey and Slater, we have the Bailey pair relative to $x^{2} q$,

$$
\alpha_{n}=\frac{\left(x^{2} q\right)_{n}\left(1-x^{2} q^{2 n+1}\right)(-1)^{n} x^{2 n} q^{n(3 n+1) / 2}}{(q)_{n}\left(1-x^{2} q\right)}
$$

and

$$
\beta_{n}=\frac{1}{(q)_{n}} .
$$

This gives

$$
(1-x) \sum_{n \geq 0}(x q)_{n} x^{n}=\sum_{n \geq 0}(-1)^{n} x^{3 n} q^{n(3 n+1) / 2}\left(1-x^{2} q^{2 n+1}\right)
$$

the starting point for Zagier's proof.

## Bailey pairs

To get to the starting point for Hikami's strange identity requires much more work.

The result we need is that for $k \geq 1$ and $0 \leq a \leq k-1$, the following is a Bailey pair relative to $x^{2} q$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{n}=\frac{\left(x^{2} q\right)_{n}}{(q)_{n}\left(1-x^{2} q\right)} & (-1)^{n} x^{2 k n} q^{\binom{n+1}{2}+(a+1) n^{2}+(k-a-1)\left(n^{2}+n\right)} \\
& \times\left(1-x^{2(a+1)} q^{(a+1)(2 n+1)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta_{n}=\beta_{n_{k}}=\sum_{n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k-1} \geq 0} & \frac{q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{k-1}^{2}+n_{a+1}+\cdots+n_{k-1}} x^{2 n_{1}+\cdots+2 n_{k-1}}}{(q)_{n_{k}}} \\
& \times \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{i+1}+\delta_{a, i} \\
n_{i}
\end{array}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Bailey pairs

Using this in the key identity one obtains the starting point for Hikami's proof.

It also gives Hikami's Andrews-Gordon variant using a different application of the Bailey lemma.

Its proof requires a sequence of new Bailey-type lemmas, culminating in a key lemma, which says that if $\left(\alpha_{n}, \beta_{n}\right)$ is a Bailey pair relative to $a$, then $\left(\alpha_{n}^{\prime \prime}, \beta_{n}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ is a Bailey pair relative to $a q$, where

$$
\alpha_{n}^{\prime \prime}=\frac{1}{1-a q}\left(\frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-a q^{2 n+2}} \alpha_{n+1}+\frac{q^{n}\left(1-a q^{n}\right)}{1-a q^{2 n}} \alpha_{n}\right)
$$

and

$$
\beta_{n}^{\prime \prime}=\left(1-q^{n+1}\right) \beta_{n+1}
$$

The proof of the desired Bailey pair then goes as follows:

Start with the unit Bailey pair relative to $x^{2}$, iterate $a+1$ times along the Bailey chain with $b, c \rightarrow \infty$, apply the key lemma to obtain a Bailey pair relative to $x^{2} q$, iterate $k-1-a$ times along the Bailey chain with $b, c \rightarrow \infty$, and simplify to obtain the result.

## Conclusion

Many other Bailey pairs can be used in the key identity to (ultimately) obtain strange identities.

The presence of the term $(q)_{n} /\left(x^{2} q\right)_{n}$ does restrict the possibilities.
Behind the scenes, we've always iterated along the Bailey chain using $b, c \rightarrow \infty$. Other choices give, for example,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n_{1}, \ldots, n_{k} \geq 0} \frac{(q)_{n_{k}}(-q)_{n_{k-1}} q^{n_{1}^{2}+\cdots+n_{k-2}^{2}+\binom{n_{k-1}+1}{2}+n_{a+1}+\cdots+n_{k-2}}}{(-q)_{n_{k}}} \\
& \times \prod_{i=1}^{k-1}\left[\begin{array}{c}
n_{i+1}+\delta_{i, a} \\
n_{i}
\end{array}\right] \\
& "="-\sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{4 k}^{(a)}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(k-a-1)^{2}}{4 k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Conclusion

Here $0 \leq a<k-1$, and $\chi_{4 k}^{(a)}(n)$ is the even periodic function modulo $4 k$ defined by

$$
\chi_{4 k}^{(a)}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1, & \text { if } n \equiv k-a-1 \text { or } 3 k+a+1 & (\bmod 4 k) \\
-1, & \text { if } n \equiv k+a+1 \text { or } 3 k-a-1 & (\bmod 4 k) \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

It does not appear possible to obtain a strange identity for every periodic function.

## Conclusion

One important class we seem to miss is

$$
\sum_{n \geq 0} n \chi_{2 s t}(n) q^{\frac{n^{2}-(s t-s-t)^{2}}{4 s t}}
$$

where $\chi_{2 s t}(n)$ is the even periodic function modulo $2 s t$ defined by

$$
\chi_{2 s t}(n)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
1, & \text { if } n \equiv s t-s-t \text { or } s t+s+t & (\bmod 2 s t) \\
-1, & \text { if } n \equiv s t-s+t \text { or } s t+s-t & (\bmod 2 s t) \\
0, & \text { otherwise } &
\end{array}\right.
$$

These are related to the torus knots $T_{s, t}$.

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