## DISCRETE MATHEMATICS

# Chapter 4: Main families of numbers

# 4.1 Fibonacci numbers

Leonardo de Pisa (1175-1250): Suppose that we have a pair of rabbits. Every month, except for the first one, each pair gives birth to a new pair. Rabbits never die. We call the number of pairs of rabbits alive at month n,  $F_n$ . Thus,

$$\begin{split} F_1 &= 1 & R_1 \\ F_2 &= 1 & R_1 \\ F_3 &= 2 & R_1, R_{11} \\ F_4 &= 3 & R_1, R_{11}, R_{12} \\ F_5 &= 5 & R_1, R_{11}, R_{12}, R_{13}, R_{111} \\ F_6 &= 8 & R_1, R_{11}, R_{12}, R_{13}, R_{111}, R_{14}, R_{112}, R_{121} \end{split}$$

 $F_n$  is formed by starting with the  $F_{n-1}$  pairs alive last month and adding the baby pairs that can only come from the  $F_{n-2}$  pairs alive two months ago. Hence,

$$F_0 = 0, \quad F_1 = 1, \quad F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}, \quad n \ge 2.$$

The generating function is

$$F(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^2}.$$

The explicit expression for  $F_n$  is

$$F_n = rac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[ \left(rac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}
ight)^n - \left(rac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}
ight)^n 
ight].$$

## 4.1 Fibonacci numbers

Some properties about partial sums:

1

$$F_0 + F_1 + \cdots + F_n = F_{n+2} - 1, \quad n \ge 0$$

2

$$(n+1)F_0 + nF_1 + \cdots + 2F_{n-1} + F_n = F_{n+4} - (n+3)$$

3

$$F_0 + F_2 + \cdots + F_{2n} = F_{2n+1} - 1$$

4

$$F_1 + F_3 + \cdots + F_{2n-1} = F_{2n}$$

**5** 

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (n+1-k)F_{2k} = F_{2n+2} - (n+1)$$

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# 4.1 Fibonacci numbers

Some properties about products, divisibility,...:

1

$$F_{n+m} = F_m \cdot F_{n+1} + F_{m-1} \cdot F_n, \quad n \ge 0, m \ge 1$$

2

$$F_{kn}$$
 is a multiple of  $F_n$ ,  $k \ge 1$ 

3

$$F_{2n+1} = F_{n+1}^2 + F_n^2$$

### 4.2 Catalan numbers

Eugène Charles Catalan (1814-1894) defined the Catalan numbers.

#### **Definition**

The Catalan numbers are

$$C_n = \frac{1}{n+1} {2n \choose n}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Thus,

$$C_0 = \frac{1}{1} \binom{0}{0} = 1$$
,

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{2} \binom{2}{1} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$$
,

$$C_2 = \frac{1}{3} \binom{4}{2} = \frac{6}{3} = 2$$
,

$$C_3 = \frac{1}{4} \binom{6}{3} = \frac{6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4}{3! \cdot 4} = 5$$

:

It turns out that  $C_n = \binom{2n}{n} - \binom{2n}{n+1}$ .

Thus,  $C_n$  is a natural number.

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## 4.2 Catalan numbers

Recall  $\Theta_{(0,0)}^{(p,q)}$  = set of U-D trajectories from (0,0) to (p,q), with  $p,q \in \mathbb{N}$ .

If  $p \ge q \ge 0$  and p and q have the same parity then an U-D trajectory from (0,0) to (p,q) can be seen as a sequence formed by  $\frac{p+q}{2}$  zeros and  $\frac{p-q}{2}$  ones.

Therefore,  $|\Theta_{(0,0)}^{(p,q)}| = \binom{p}{\frac{p+q}{2}}$ .

In particular, if q=0 and p=2n,  $|\Theta_{(0,0)}^{(2n,0)}|=\binom{2n}{n}$ .

Put  $\Theta_n = \Theta_{(0,0)}^{(2n,0)}$ ,

 $\Theta_n^* = \text{set of "super" U-D trajectories, that is, set of U-D trajectories from } (0,0) \text{ to } (2n,0) \text{ with } y \geq 0, \text{ and }$ 

 $\Theta_n^{**}$  = set of "extra-super" U-D trajectories, that is, set of U-D trajectories from (0,0) to (2n,0) with y>0 except for the initial and final points.

It turns out that  $|\Theta_n^*| = C_n$  and  $|\Theta_n^{**}| = C_{n-1}$ .

How many "super" U-D trajectories from (0,0) to (2n,0) are there such that they touch OX for the first time at (2k,0),  $k=1,2,\ldots,n$ ?  $|\Theta_k^{**}|\cdot |\Theta_{n-k}^*|=C_{k-1}C_{n-k}$ . Thus,

$$C_n = \sum_{k=1}^n C_{k-1} C_{n-k}.$$

That is,

$$C_0 = 1$$
,  $C_n = C_0 C_{n-1} + C_1 C_{n-2} + \cdots + C_{n-1} C_0$ ,  $n > 1$ .

## 4.2 Catalan numbers

The generating function is

$$c(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n x^n, \quad |x| < \frac{1}{4}, x \neq 0.$$

$$c(x) \cdot c(x) = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n x^n\right) \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n x^n\right) = \\ \left(C_0 + C_1 x + C_2 x^2 + \cdots\right) \left(C_0 + C_1 x + C_2 x^2 + \cdots\right) = C_0 C_0 + \left(C_0 C_1 + C_1 C_0\right) x + \\ \left(C_0 C_2 + C_1 C_1 + C_2 C_0\right) x^2 + \cdots + \left(C_0 C_n + C_1 C_{n-1} + \cdots + C_n C_0\right) x^n + \cdots = \\ C_1 + C_2 x + C_3 x^2 + \cdots + C_{n+1} x^n + \cdots = \frac{c(x) - C_0}{x}.$$

Thus, 
$$c(x)^2 = \frac{c(x) - C_0}{x}$$
 and  $xc(x)^2 - c(x) + 1 = 0$ .

Therefore,  $c(x) = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1-4x}}{2x}$ .

Since 
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{1+\sqrt{1-4x}}{2x}=\pm\infty$$
 and  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{1-\sqrt{1-4x}}{2x}=1$ 

$$c(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x} & |x| < \frac{1}{4}, x \neq 0 \\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

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### 4.2 Catalan numbers

Combinatorial problem related to the Catalan numbers: triangulation of convex polygons with numbered vertices.

Triangulation is a decomposition of a convex polygon in triangles with disjoint interiors and whose vertices are the vertices of the polygon.

Let  $T_n$  be the number of possible triangulations of a polygon with n+2 sides and numbered vertices  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{n+2}$ .

Notice that two consecutive vertices are related in a triangle.

We can classify in terms of the third vertex: If  $v_1, v_2$  are the two fixed vertices then we can get  $v_1v_2v_{k+2}$ ,  $k=1,\ldots,n$ .

For each k = 1, ..., n we would get the number of triangulations that can be made with vertices  $v_2, v_3, \ldots, v_{k+2}$  times the number of triangulations that can be made with vertices  $v_{k+2}, \ldots, v_{n+2}, v_1$ .

Therefore,

$$T_n = \sum_{k=1}^n T_{k-1} T_{n-k}.$$

If we set  $T_0 = 1$  then  $T_n = C_n$ .

## 4.2 Catalan numbers

Another combinatorial problem related to the Catalan numbers: parenthesize a product.

To parenthesize a product means to insert enough parentheses so that every subproduct is the multiplication of exactly two factors.

For example, the product  $x_1x_2x_3x_4$  can be parenthesized as:

$$(x_1((x_2x_3)x_4))$$

or

 $(x_1(x_2(x_3x_4)))$ 

or

 $((x_1x_2)(x_3x_4))$ 

or

 $(((x_1x_2)x_3)x_4)$ 

or

$$((x_1(x_2x_3))x_4)$$

Let  $a_n$  be the number of ways in which  $x_1x_2\cdots x_n$  can be parenthesized. It turns out that  $a_n = C_{n-1}$ .

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# 4.3 Partitions of natural numbers

4.3.1 Definition

#### **Definition**

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \ldots\}$ . A **partition of** n is an expression of n as sum of natural numbers, which are called parts.

Two partitions are considered identical if they only differ in the order of the parts.

For example,  $2+1 \equiv 1+2$ .

If two partitions that only differ in the order are considered different then they are ordered partitions.

4.3.2 Ordered partitions

Let  $\pi_n$  be the number of ordered partitions of n.

 $\pi_1 = 1$  (1),

 $\pi_2 = 2 \quad (2, 1+1),$ 

 $\pi_3 = 4$  (3, 2 + 1, 1 + 2, 1 + 1 + 1),

 $\pi_4 = 8$  (4,3+1,2+2,2+1+1,1+3,1+2+1,1+1+2,1+1+1+1).

Conjecture: Is  $\pi_n = 2^{n-1}$  for every  $n \ge 1$ ?

We classify according to the number of parts:

● 1 part: 1 (n)

• 2 parts: n-1  $(1+(n-1), 2+(n-2), \dots, (n-1)+1)$ 

• k parts: number of solutions of  $x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_k = n$  with  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{N}$ 

• *n* parts: 1  $(1+1+\cdots+1)$ 

How many are there?

For each k, the number of solutions of  $x_1+x_2+\cdots+x_k=n$  with  $x_i\in\mathbb{N}\equiv$  the number of solutions of  $(1+y_1)+(1+y_2)+\cdots+(1+y_k)=n$  with  $y_i\in\mathbb{N}\cup\{0\}\equiv$  the number of solutions of  $y_1+y_2+\cdots+y_k=n-k$  with  $y_i\in\mathbb{N}\cup\{0\}\equiv CR_{k,n-k}=\binom{k+n-k-1}{n-k}=\binom{n-1}{k-1}$ . Thus,

$$\pi_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} = 2^{n-1}, \quad n \ge 1.$$

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## 4.3 Partitions of natural numbers

4.3.3 Partitions and restricted partitions

Let  $p_n$  be the number of partitions of n.

Let  $p_n^{(k)}$  be the number of partitions of n with parts  $\leq k$ .

We set  $p_0 = 1$  and  $p_0^{(k)} = 1$ .

It is clear that  $p_n \le \pi_n = 2^{n-1}$ . Moreover, if  $k \ge n$ ,  $p_n^{(k)} = p_n$ .

### Theorem

The generating function of  $(p_n^{(k)})_{n>0}$  is

$$p^{(k)}(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} \frac{1}{1-x^2} \cdots \frac{1}{1-x^k} = \prod_{r=1}^k \frac{1}{1-x^r}, \quad |x| < 1.$$

#### **Theorem**

For  $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\lim_{k \to \infty} |p(x) - p^{(k)}(x)| = 0$  with p(x) the generating function of  $(p_n)_{n \ge 0}$ . That is,

$$p(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} p^{(k)}(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \prod_{r=1}^{k} \frac{1}{1 - x^r} = \prod_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^r}.$$

4.3.4 Partitions into distinct parts

Let  $d_n$  be the number of partitions of n into distinct parts and  $d_n^{(k)}$  be the number of partitions of n into distinct parts  $\leq k$ .

We set  $d_0 = 1$  and  $d_0^{(k)} = 1$ .

Notice that  $d_n^{(k)} \leq d_n \leq p_n \leq \pi_n = 2^{n-1}$  and if  $n \leq k$  then  $d_n^{(k)} = d_n$ .

#### Theorem

The generating function of  $(d_n^{(k)})_{n>0}$  is

$$d^{(k)}(x) = (1+x)(1+x^2)\cdots(1+x^k) = \prod_{r=1}^k (1+x^r)$$

and  $d_n^{(k)}$  is the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $d^{(k)}(x)$ .

#### Theorem

For  $|x|<\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\lim_{k\to\infty}|d(x)-d^{(k)}(x)|=0$  with d(x) the generating function of  $(d_n)_{n\geq 0}$ . That is,

$$d(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} d^{(k)}(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} \prod_{r=1}^{k} (1 + x^r) = \prod_{r=1}^{\infty} (1 + x^r).$$

## 4.3 Partitions of natural numbers

4.3.5 Partitions into odd parts

Let  $o_n$  be the number of partitions of n into odd parts and let  $o_n^{(k)}$  be the number of partitions of n into odd parts  $\leq k$ . We set  $o_0 = 1$  and  $o_0^{(k)} = 1$ .

It is clear that  $o_n^{(k)} \leq o_n \leq p_n \leq \pi_n = 2^{n-1}$ . Moreover,  $o_n^{(2l-1)} = o_n^{(2l)}$  and if  $k \geq n$ ,  $o_n^{(k)} = o_n$ .

#### **Theorem**

The generating function of  $(o_n^{(2l-1)})_{n>0}$ ,  $l \ge 1$ , is

$$o^{(2l-1)}(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} \frac{1}{1-x^3} \cdots \frac{1}{1-x^{2l-1}} = \prod_{r=1}^{l} \frac{1}{1-x^{2r-1}}, \quad |x| < 1$$

and  $o_n^{(2l-1)}$  is the coefficient of  $x^n$  in  $o^{(2l-1)}(x)$ . Moreover, the generating function of  $(o_n^{(2l)})_{n>0}, l \geq 1$ , is  $o^{(2l)}(x) = o^{(2l-1)}(x)$ .

4.3.5 Partitions into odd parts

#### **Theorem**

For  $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\lim_{k \to \infty} |o(x) - o^{(2l-1)}(x)| = 0$  with o(x) the generating function of  $(o_n)_{n>0}$ . That is,

$$o(x) = \lim_{l \to \infty} o^{(2l-1)}(x) = \lim_{l \to \infty} \prod_{r=1}^{l} \frac{1}{1 - x^{2r-1}} = \prod_{r=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - x^{2r-1}}.$$

## Corollary

For  $|x| < \frac{1}{2}$ , d(x) = o(x) and  $d_n = o_n$  for all n.

#### Remark

We could generalize the above taking  $A = \{a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \cdots\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\alpha_n$  as the number of partitions of n with parts in A and  $\alpha_n^{(k)}$  as the number of partitions of n with parts  $\leq k$  in A.

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## 4.3 Partitions of natural numbers

4.3.6 Ferrers diagrams

## Example

Ferrers diagram of the partition 13 = 5 + 3 + 2 + 2 + 1:

In general,

#### 4.3.6 Ferrers diagrams

Characteristics of a Ferrers diagram of a partition of n:

- The total number of circles is *n*.
- The number of rows is the number of parts.
- The number of columns is the greatest part.

#### **Definition**

Let  $\pi$  be a partition of n. The **conjugate of**  $\pi$ ,  $\pi^t$ , is a partition whose Ferrers diagram is the transpose of the Ferrers diagram of  $\pi$ .

### Example

```
\pi = 5 + 3 + 2 + 2 + 1:
```

#### Theorem

The number of partitions of n into (at most) k parts is equal to the number of partitions of n in which the greatest part is (at most) k.

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## 4.3 Partitions of natural numbers

### 4.3.6 Ferrers diagrams

#### **Definition**

A partition  $\pi$  of n is **self-conjugate** if  $\pi^t = \pi$ , that is, if the Ferrers diagram is symmetric with respect to the main diagonal.

How many self-conjugate partitions of *n* are there?

```
{Partitions of n into odd distinct parts}
 f: \{ Self-conjugate partitions of n \} \rightarrow
              x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_{x_1} \rightarrow (2x_1 - 1) + (2(x_2 - 1) - 1) + \cdots + (2(x_l - (l - 1)) - 1)
where l = x_1 or (l \le x_l \text{ and } l + 1 > x_{l+1}), is a bijection.
```

#### Example

There are as many self-conjugate partitions of n as the number of partitions of n into odd distinct parts.

## 4.4 Bell numbers

#### **Definition**

Let  $\Omega$  be a finite set. A **partition of**  $\Omega$  is a collection of subsets of  $\Omega$ ,  $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k\}$ ,

- $\bigcirc$   $A_i \neq \emptyset$  for all i.
- 2 They are pairwise disjoint, i.e.,  $A_i \cap A_i = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ .
- **3** Their union is  $\Omega$ , i.e.,  $\Omega = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i$ .

## Definition (Eric Temple Bell (1883-1960))

Let  $B_0 = 1$  and  $B_n$  be the number of partitions of a set of n elements,  $n \ge 1$ .  $B_0, B_1, B_2, \ldots$  are called the **Bell numbers**.

### Example

- n = 1  $\Omega = \{1\}, B_1 = 1, (\{\{1\}\})$
- n=2  $\Omega = \{1,2\}, B_2 = 2, (\{\{1,2\}\}, \{\{1\}, \{2\}\})$
- n = 3  $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3\}, B_3 = 5,$  $(\{\{1,2,3\}\},\{\{1,2\},\{3\}\},\{\{1,3\},\{2\}\},\{\{2,3\},\{1\}\},\{\{1\},\{2\},\{3\}\}))$

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### 4.4 Bell numbers

Recurrence relation for the Bell numbers:

Let 
$$\Omega = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$$
.

Let  $A_1$  be any subset of  $\Omega$  that contains the element 1.

There are  $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$  sets  $A_1$  that have k elements, with  $k=1,\ldots,n$ .

Once  $A_1$  is fixed there are  $B_{n-k}$  partitions of  $\Omega \setminus A_1$ .

Therefore.

$$B_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{k-1} B_{n-k} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n-1}{n-k} B_{n-k} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} B_k.$$

Thus,

$$B_n = \binom{n-1}{0}B_0 + \binom{n-1}{1}B_1 + \cdots + \binom{n-1}{n-1}B_{n-1}.$$

# 4.4 Bell numbers

We can make use of the Pascal's triangle to calculate the Bell numbers:

$$B_0 = 1,$$
  
 $B_1 = 1B_0 = 1,$   
 $B_2 = 1B_0 + 1B_1 = 2,$   
 $B_3 = 1B_0 + 2B_1 + 1B_2 = 5,$   
 $B_4 = 1B_0 + 3B_1 + 3B_2 + 1B_3 = 15,$   
 $B_5 = 1B_0 + 4B_1 + 6B_2 + 4B_3 + 1B_4 = 52, ...$ 

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## 4.4 Bell numbers

#### **Theorem**

$$\left(\frac{B_{n+1}}{n!}\right)_{n\geq 0} = \left(\frac{B_n}{n!}\right)_{n\geq 0} * \left(\frac{1}{n!}\right)_{n\geq 0}$$

The exponential generating function of  $(B_n)_{n\geq 0}$  is the generating function of  $(\frac{B_n}{n!})_{n>0}$ :

$$B(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{n!} x^n.$$

Hence,  $B'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{n!} n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{B_n}{(n-1)!} x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{B_{n+1}}{n!} x^n$ .

Therefore, B'(x) is the generating function of  $\left(\frac{B_{n+1}}{n!}\right)_{n>0}$ .

Since  $e^x$  is the generating function of  $\left(\frac{1}{n!}\right)_{n>0}$ ,

$$B'(x) = B(x)e^{x}$$
 (linear differential equation)

As 
$$\frac{B'(x)}{B(x)} = e^x$$
,  $\ln B(x) = e^x + C$  and  $B(x) = e^{e^x + C}$ .

Moreover  $B(0)=\frac{B_0}{0!}=1$ . So,  $1=e^{1+C}$ , 0=1+C and C=-1. Thus,

$$B(x)=e^{e^x-1}.$$

# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the first kind

Recall

$$x^{\overline{n}} = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} x(x+1)\cdots(x+n-1) & n \geq 1 \ 1 & n = 0 \end{array} 
ight.$$

 $x^{\overline{n}}$  is a polynomial of degree n.

Let  $\mathbb{R}[x]$  be the vector space of polynomials in the indeterminate x with real coefficients and  $\mathbb{R}_n[x]$  the vector subspace of polynomials of degree at most n.

Then  $\mathcal{B}=\{1,x,x^2,\ldots\}$ ,  $\overline{\mathcal{B}}=\{1,x^{\overline{1}},x^{\overline{2}},\ldots\}$  and  $\underline{\mathcal{B}}=\{1,x^{\underline{1}},x^{\underline{2}},\ldots\}$  are bases of  $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and  $\mathcal{B}_n = \{1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n\}$ ,  $\overline{\mathcal{B}}_n = \{1, x^{\overline{1}}, x^{\overline{2}}, \dots, x^{\overline{n}}\}$  and  $\underline{\mathcal{B}}_n = \{1, x^{\underline{1}}, x^{\underline{2}}, \dots, x^{\underline{n}}\}$  are bases of  $\mathbb{R}_n[x]$ .

#### **Definition**

For n, k = 0, 1, 2, ..., the **Stirling numbers of the first kind**, denoted by  $\binom{n}{k}$ , are the coordinates of  $x^{\overline{n}}$  with respect to the canonical basis  $\mathcal{B}_n$ , in other words,  $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ \nu \end{bmatrix}$  is the coefficient of  $x^k$  in  $x^{\overline{n}}$ .

#### Remark

Notice that  $(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$  and  $x^{\overline{n}} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$ .

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# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the first kind

### **Proposition**

- **1** If  $n \ge 1$  then  $\binom{n}{1} = (n-1)!$
- **6**  $\binom{n}{n-1} = \binom{n}{2}$ .

## Recurrence relation:

For  $n \ge 2$  and  $1 \le k \le n-1$ ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix} + (n-1) \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}.$$

# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the first kind

#### Pascal's triangle:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix}$$

Ex: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 274 = 24 + 5 \cdot 50 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 5 \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

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# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the first kind

### Combinatorial meaning:

 $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}$  can be seen as the number of permutations of  $1, 2, \ldots, n$  that can be expressed as a product of k cycles with disjoint orbits.

Example:

# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the second kind

Recall

$$x^{\underline{n}} = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} x(x-1)\cdots(x-n+1) & & n \geq 1 \ 1 & & n = 0 \end{array} 
ight.$$

 $x^{\underline{n}}$  is a polynomial of degree n.

#### **Definition**

For  $n, k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ , the **Stirling numbers of the second kind**, denoted by  $\binom{n}{k}$ , are the coordinates of  $x^n$  with respect to  $\underline{\mathcal{B}} = \{1, x^{\underline{1}}, x^{\underline{2}}, \ldots\}$ , in other words,  $\binom{n}{k}$  is the coefficient of  $x^{\underline{k}}$  in  $x^n$ .

#### Remark

Notice that  $x^n = \sum_{k=0}^n {n \brace k} x^{\underline{k}}$ .

## Proposition

- **1** If k > n then  $\binom{n}{k} = 0$ .
- $\{ n \} = 1.$

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# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the second kind

#### Recurrence relation:

For  $n \ge 2$  and  $1 \le k \le n-1$ ,

$${n \brace k} = {n-1 \brace k-1} + k {n-1 \brack k}.$$

# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the second kind

#### Pascal's triangle:

Ex: 
$${5 \choose 2} = 15 = 1 + 2 \cdot 7 = {4 \choose 1} + 2{4 \choose 2}$$
.

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# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the second kind

#### Combinatorial meaning:

Define b(n, k) as the number of partitions of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  in k (nonempty) subsets.

Example: b(4,2) = 7 because if  $\{1,2,3,4\}$ :

$$\{\{1\}, \{2,3,4\}\}, \{\{2\}, \{1,3,4\}\}, \{\{3\}, \{1,2,4\}\}, \{\{4\}, \{1,2,3\}\}, \{\{1,2\}, \{3,4\}\}, \{\{1,3\}, \{2,4\}\}, \{\{1,4\}, \{2,3\}\}.$$

Notice that b(n,0)=0 for  $n\geq 1$  and b(n,n)=1 for  $n\geq 1$ . We can set b(0,0)=1. We can classify the partitions according to element 1:

- Those in which  $\{1\}$  is a subset: there are b(n-1, k-1).
- Those in which  $\{1\}$  is not a subset.- we choose a partition of  $\{2, \ldots, n\}$  in k (nonempty) subsets and insert element 1: there are kb(n-1,k).

Therefore, b(n, k) = b(n - 1, k - 1) + kb(n - 1, k). Thus,

$${n \brace k} = b(n, k) =$$
 number of partitions of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  in  $k$  (nonempty) subsets.

# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the second kind

#### Relation with the Bell numbers:

 $B_n$  = number of partitions of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ .

$$B_n = \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ 0 \end{Bmatrix} + \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ 1 \end{Bmatrix} + \cdots + \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ n \end{Bmatrix}.$$

Notice that in the Pascal's triangle the sum of the elements of the nth row is  $B_n$ .

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# 4.5 Stirling numbers of the second kind

### Another combinatorial meaning:

Let c(n, k) be the number of ways to put n distinguishable balls in k indistinguishable boxes with no empty boxes.

Idea: Choose a partition of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  in k subsets and put the k (nonempty) subsets of balls in the k boxes (one per box):

$$c(n,k) = \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix}$$

Moreover,

$$k! {n \brace k}$$

- is the number of ways to put *n* distinguishable balls in *k* numbered boxes with no empty boxes.
- is the number of surjective mappings from  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  to  $\{1, \ldots, k\}$ .