

Stirling Numbers of the Second Kind and Their Generating Functions

DEF The Stirling numbers of the second kind $S(n, k)$ count the number of set partitions of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ into k blocks.

The point of this note is to give both the ordinary and exponential generating functions for $S(n, k)$.

Both the ordinary and exponential generating functions rely on the following recursion:

$$(1) \quad S(n, k) = S(n-1, k-1) + k S(n-1, k)$$

To see the recursion holds, notice that there are two ways to find a set partition of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ from a set partition of $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$. The first way is to have the singleton $\{n\}$ and a partition of $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$ into $(k-1)$ -many blocks. The second is to start with a partition of $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$ into k -many blocks and add n into one of those blocks.

Ex LET $n=5$. The partition

$$\{\{1,3\}, \{2,4\}, \{5\}\}$$

contributes to $S(5,3)$, and comes from the partition

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

by adding $\{5\}$. It contributes to $S(4,2)$. Now, the partitions

$$\begin{aligned} &\{\{1,5\}, \{2,3\}, \{4\}\} \\ &\{\{1\}, \{2,3,5\}, \{4\}\} \\ &\{\{1\}, \{2,3\}, \{4,5\}\} \end{aligned}$$

all come from

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

by adding 5 to one of the 3 existing blocks, so we see

$$S(5,3) = S(4,2) + 3S(4,3).$$

To go from a recursion to a generating function, we apply what Herbert Wilf calls in "generating functionology":

THE METHOD

The method is to turn the recursion into an equation of generating functions by summing over both sides and multiplying by x^n . So we get

$$A_k(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n, k) x^n = \sum_{n \geq 0} (S(n-1, k-1) + k S(n-1, k)) x^n$$

$$B_k(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n, k) \frac{x^n}{n!} = \sum_{n \geq 0} (S(n-1, k-1) + k S(n-1, k)) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

OGF

$$\begin{aligned} A_k(x) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k-1) x^n + \sum_{n \geq 0} k S(n-1, k) x^n \\ &= x \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k-1) x^{n-1} + k x \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k) x^{n-1} \\ &= x A_{k-1}(x) + k x A_k(x) \end{aligned}$$

We can solve for A_k :

$$A_k(x) = \frac{x A_{k-1}(x)}{1 - kx}$$

But at this point, we only have a relationship between A_k and A_{k-1} .

So, to find a closed form for A_k , let's think about A_0, A_1 , and then induct on k .

A_0 is the generating function for partitions of n into zero parts. The only number which can be partitioned into zero parts is zero itself. So,

$$\begin{aligned} A_0 &= S(0,0) + S(1,0)x + S(2,0)x^2 + \dots \\ &= 1 + 0x + 0x^2 + \dots = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, there is only one way to partition a positive number into one part, so

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= S(0,1) + S(1,1)x + S(2,1)x^2 + \dots \\ &= 0 + x + x^2 + \dots = x \cdot \frac{1}{1-x}, \end{aligned}$$

since \emptyset cannot be partitioned into one part and

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}.$$

If

$$A_k(x) = \frac{x A_{k-1}(x)}{1-kx}$$

and $A_0 = 1$, then

$$A_1(x) = \frac{x}{1-x}.$$

applying induction, we see:

$$A_k(x) = \prod_{j=1}^k \frac{x}{1-jx}.$$

EGF Now we consider the situation of exponential generating functions. Recall that

$$B_k(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n, k) \frac{x^n}{n!} = \sum_{n \geq 0} (S(n-1, k-1) + k S(n-1, k)) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

and so

$$B_k(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k-1) \frac{x^n}{n!} + k \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

In order to get both the exponent and denominator of

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k-1) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

to agree with the first argument of $S(n-1, k-1)$, we take the derivative with respect to x :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} B_k &= \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k-1) \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \\ &\quad + k \sum_{n \geq 0} S(n-1, k) \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \end{aligned}$$

which yields the functional equation

$$(2) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} B_k(x) = B_{k-1}(x) + k B_k(x)$$

(since $S(-1, k) = 0$ for all k)

Now we want to find a solution to the differential equation (2).

Since the equation depends on k , let's first look at small values of k . This will allow us to guess a formula for $B_k(x)$, which we will then prove both satisfies (2) and is the unique solution which makes sense in this situation.

First, take $k=1$. Then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} B_1(x) = B_0(x) + B_1(x)$$

Similarly to our analysis of $A_0(x)$, we find that $B_0(x) = 1$. So we conclude that

$$B_1'(x) - B_1(x) = 1.$$

This is a differential equation of the form

$$(3) \quad P(x)y(x) + y'(x) = Q(x).$$

To solve these, multiply both sides by the integrating factor

$$I = e^{\int P(x) dx}$$

taking $P(x) = -1$.

So we get

$$-e^{-x} B_1(x) + e^{-x} B_1'(x) = e^{-x}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} [e^{-x} B_1(x)] = e^{-x}$$

or in other words:

$$e^{-x} B_1(x) = \int e^{-x} dx = -e^{-x} + c$$

so

$$B_1(x) = -1 + ce^x.$$

We can determine the value of c by recognising that $B_1(0) = S(0,1) = 0$, and so

$$B_1(x) = -1 + e^x$$

This base-case is helpful, but not quite what we need yet, so let's try the $k=2$ case.

$$B_2'(x) = B_1(x) + 2B_2(x)$$

This again fits the form (3), so we may apply the same approach to finding its solution.

$$B_2'(x) - 2B_2(x) = e^x - 1$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (e^{-2x} B_2(x)) = e^{-x} - e^{-2x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-2x} B_2(x) &= \int e^{-x} - e^{-2x} dx \\ &= -e^{-x} + \frac{1}{2} e^{-2x} + c \end{aligned}$$

We have the initial condition $B_2(0) = S(0,2) = 0$,

and so we see that

$$B_2(0) = 0 = -e^0 + \frac{1}{2} + ce^{2 \cdot 0} = -1 + \frac{1}{2} + c$$

hence $c = \frac{1}{2}$. This is a perfectly fine answer, but with the benefit of knowing the answer, I'll write it like this:

$$B_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^x - 1)^2.$$

Repeating the process for $k=3$, we see

$$B_3(x) = \frac{1}{6}(e^x - 1)^3.$$

This leads us to take a guess that

$$B_k(x) = \frac{1}{k!}(e^x - 1)^k.$$

Now we can check that this solution holds and is correct by

- i) showing it satisfies the differential equation (2)
- ii) applying the existence and uniqueness theorem for ODEs.

First, taking $B_k(x) = \frac{1}{k!}(e^x - 1)^k$, we see

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} B_k(x) = \left(\frac{1}{(k-1)!}\right) (e^x - 1)^{k-1} e^x$$

and then

$$\begin{aligned}
 B_{k-1}(x) + k B_k(x) &= \frac{1}{(k-1)!} (e^x - 1)^{k-1} + \frac{k}{k!} (e^x - 1)^k \\
 &= \frac{1}{(k-1)!} (e^x - 1)^{k-1} (1 + e^x - 1) \\
 &= \frac{1}{(k-1)!} (e^x - 1)^{k-1} e^x \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} B_k(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

So $B_k(x) = \frac{1}{k!} (e^x - 1)^k$ satisfies (2)

Thm: (Existence and uniqueness for an IVP).

Consider the IVP

$$(*) = \begin{cases} \frac{dy}{dx} = f(x, y) \\ y(x_0) = y_0 \end{cases}$$

If f is continuous in a neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) , then there is a solution to $(*)$ and if moreover $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$ is continuous in a neighborhood of (x_0, y_0) , then the solution is unique.

So we are considering the IVP

$$(4) = \begin{cases} y' = k y + \frac{1}{(k-1)!} (e^x - 1)^{k-1} \\ y(0) = S(0, k) \end{cases}$$

Where $S(0, k) = \begin{cases} 0 & k \neq 0 \\ 1 & k = 0 \end{cases}$. Thus, the fact that $\frac{\partial}{\partial y} (k y + \frac{1}{(k-1)!} (e^x - 1)^{k-1}) = k$ is continuous on all of \mathbb{R}^2 implies that $B_k(x)$ is the unique solution to (4).

At this point we have the two equations

$$A_k(x) = \prod_{j=1}^k \frac{x}{1-jx}$$

$$B_k(x) = \frac{1}{k!} (e^x - 1)^k,$$

which was our goal.