

# SOME PROPERTIES OF A SEQUENCE OF INVERSION NUMBERS

Dexter Jane L. Indong and Gilbert R. Peralta

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science, University of the Philippines Baguio,  
Governor Pack Road, Baguio City, Philippines  
e-mail: dlindong@upb.edu.ph, grperalta@upb.edu.ph

**Abstract.** *In this paper, we consider a certain sequence of inversion numbers. We show that this sequence is a polynomial sequence and find its leading term. Using this, a characterization of the Hankel and inverse binomial transforms of these inversion numbers will be given and each of these transforms, together with an appropriate sequence, forms a basis for the space of real sequences having compact support. Also, with the aid of the generating function of the inversion numbers we will give a formula for a certain type of complex integral.*

## 1 Introduction

Let  $\sigma$  be a permutation of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . The pair  $(\sigma(i), \sigma(j))$  is called an **inversion** of  $\sigma$  if  $i < j$  and  $\sigma(i) > \sigma(j)$ . Inversions are used in sorting algorithms and have applications in computational molecular biology (see [2]). Denote  $N(\sigma)$  to be the total number of inversions of the permutation  $\sigma$ . Then  $N(\sigma)$  is the smallest number of factors such that the permutation  $\sigma$  can be written as a product of simple transpositions [1].

For each nonnegative integer  $k$ , we let  $I_n(k) = |\{\sigma \in \mathbf{S}_n : N(\sigma) = k\}|$ , where  $\mathbf{S}_n$  is the symmetric group of degree  $n$ . That is,  $I_n(k)$  is the total number of permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  having  $k$  inversions. Then  $I_n(k) = 0$  for all  $k > \binom{n}{2}$  and  $I_n(k) > 0$  for all  $0 \leq k \leq \binom{n}{2}$ . The number  $I_n(k)$  is called an **inversion number**. Finding the value of  $I_n(k)$  is a classic area of combinatorics. Margolius, Louchard and Prodinger give asymptotic formulas of a certain sequence of inversion numbers, the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(n) : n \geq 0\}$ , where  $k$  is a fixed positive integer [4, 6]. The results of Louchard and Prodinger are based on the saddle point method. In a recent paper [5], the authors consider another sequence of inversion numbers, the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$ , where  $k \geq 1$  is fixed. Interestingly, these sequences are polynomial sequences as we can see later.

The inversion numbers have the following recursive formula

$$I_1(0) = I_2(0) = I_2(1) = 1$$

and

$$I_n(k) = \sum_{i=\max\{0, k-n+1\}}^{\min\{k, \binom{n-1}{2}\}} I_{n-1}(i), \quad n \geq 3. \tag{1}$$

This formula was obtained using a specific partition of the symmetric group. For  $n > 1$ , this can be simplified into

$$I_n(k) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } k = 0; \\ I_n(k-1) + I_{n-1}(k), & \text{if } 1 \leq k \leq n-1; \\ I_n(k-1) + I_{n-1}(k) - I_{n-1}(k-n), & \text{if } n \leq k \leq \binom{n-1}{2}; \\ I_n(k-1) - I_{n-1}(k-n), & \text{if } \binom{n-1}{2} < k \leq \binom{n}{2}. \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

For more details about these recursive formulas, we refer the reader to [5].

In Section 2, we give a complete proof showing that the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$  is a polynomial sequence and that the leading term of this polynomial sequence is  $(k!)^{-1}$ . Further, we compare the monotonicity of the two sequences  $\{I_{n+l}(n) : n \geq 0\}$  and  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$ , where  $k$  and  $l$  are fixed

positive integers. Section 3 relates a specific type of an integral of a complex valued function to the inversion numbers. Finally, we characterize the Hankel and inverse binomial transforms of  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$  in Section 4.

## 2 Characterizations of a sequence of inversion numbers

In the following lemma, we consider the sum  $\sum_{j=1}^n j^{h-1}$ . As we can see later, this sum is closely related to the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$ .

**Lemma 1.** *For each positive integer  $h$  let  $P_h(n) = \sum_{j=1}^n j^{h-1}$ . Then  $P_h(n)$  is a polynomial of the variable  $n$  of degree  $h$  and*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P_h(n)}{n^h} = \frac{1}{h}.$$

*Proof.* We prove the lemma by strong induction. It is easy to see that the conclusion holds if  $h = 1$ . Now, assume that  $P_l(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $l$  for all  $1 \leq l \leq h$ . Using the Binomial Theorem, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^n [j^{h+1} - (j-1)^{h+1}] &= \sum_{j=1}^n \left[ j^{h+1} - \sum_{l=0}^{h+1} (-1)^l \binom{h+1}{l} j^{h-l+1} \right] \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^{h+1} (-1)^{l+1} \binom{h+1}{l} \left( \sum_{j=1}^n j^{h-l+1} \right) \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^{h+1} (-1)^{l+1} \binom{h+1}{l} P_{h-l+2}(n) \\ &= (h+1)P_{h+1}(n) + \sum_{l=0}^{h-1} (-1)^{l+1} \binom{h+1}{l+2} P_{h-l}(n). \end{aligned}$$

But

$$\sum_{j=1}^n [j^{h+1} - (j-1)^{h+1}] = n^{h+1},$$

and so

$$P_{h+1}(n) = \frac{n^{h+1}}{h+1} + Q(n), \quad (3)$$

where

$$Q(n) = \frac{1}{h+1} \sum_{l=0}^{h-1} (-1)^l \binom{h+1}{l+2} P_{h-l}(n). \quad (4)$$

Using Equation (4) and the induction hypothesis, we can see that  $Q(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $h$ . Thus, from Equation (3),  $P_{h+1}(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $h+1$ . Further, since  $Q(n)/n^{h+1} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we have  $P_{h+1}(n)/n^{h+1} \rightarrow 1/(h+1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $k$  be a fixed positive integer and  $n$  be a nonnegative integer. Then*

$$I_{n+k}(k) = I_k(k) + \sum_{j=1}^n I_{j+k}(k-1).$$

*Proof.* The above formula is clear if  $n = 0$ , so let us assume that  $n \geq 1$ . Note that  $1 \leq k \leq (n+k-i) - 1$  for all  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . Using this and the recursive formula (2) we have

$$\begin{aligned} I_{n+k}(k) &= I_{n+k}(k-1) + I_{n+k-1}(k) \\ &= I_{n+k}(k-1) + I_{n+k-1}(k-1) + I_{n+k-2}(k) \\ &= I_{n+k}(k-1) + I_{n+k-1}(k-1) + \dots + I_{k+1}(k-1) + I_k(k) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n I_{j+k}(k-1) + I_k(k). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of the lemma.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.** *If  $k \geq 1$ , then the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$  is a polynomial sequence of degree  $k$  and*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{I_n(k)}{n^k} = \frac{1}{k!}.$$

Moreover, the leading term of  $I_{n+k}(k)$  is  $1/k!$ .

*Proof.* Since  $I_{n+1}(1) = n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ , the theorem trivially holds if  $k = 1$ . Assume that  $I_{n+k}(k) = \sum_{i=0}^k a_{ki}n^i$ , where  $a_{kk} \neq 0$  in order for  $I_{n+k}(k)$  to have degree  $k$ . Following [5] and using Lemma 2 we have

$$\begin{aligned} I_{n+k+1}(k+1) &= I_{k+1}(k+1) + \sum_{j=1}^n I_{j+1+k}(k) \\ &= C_{k+1} + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^k a_{ki}(j+1)^i \\ &= C_{k+1} + \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^k a_{ki} \left( \sum_{h=0}^i \binom{i}{h} j^h \right) \\ &= C_{k+1} + \sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{h=0}^i \binom{i}{h} a_{ki} P_{h+1}(n), \end{aligned}$$

where  $C_{k+1} = I_{k+1}(k+1)$ . Using Lemma 1 it follows that  $I_{n+k+1}(k+1)$  is a polynomial of degree  $k+1$ . Moreover, observe that

$$I_n(k+1) = C_{k+1} + \sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{h=0}^i \binom{i}{h} a_{ki} P_{h+1}(n-k-1),$$

for all  $n \geq k+1$ . Notice that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} I_n(1)/n = 1$ . Assume that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} I_n(k)/n^k = 1/k!$ , and so  $a_{kk} = 1/k!$ . From Lemma 1 we obtain

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{P_{h+1}(n-k-1)}{n^{k+1}} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } 0 \leq h \leq k-1; \\ \frac{1}{k+1}, & \text{if } h = k. \end{cases}$$

Hence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{I_n(k+1)}{n^{k+1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{kk} P_{k+1}(n-k-1)}{n^{k+1}} = \frac{a_{kk}}{k+1} = \frac{1}{(k+1)!}.$$

The ‘moreover’ part follows immediately. This establishes the theorem.  $\square$

Using Lemma 2 and Faulhaber’s formulas we have

$$\begin{aligned} I_{n+1}(1) &= n, \\ I_{n+2}(2) &= n(n+3)/2, \\ I_{n+3}(3) &= (n+3)(n^2+6n+2)/6, \\ I_{n+4}(4) &= (n+4)(n+5)(n^2+9n+6)/24, \\ I_{n+5}(5) &= (n+4)(n+11)(n^3+15n^2+66n+60)/120, \\ I_{n+6}(6) &= (n+5)(n+6)(n^4+34n^3+401n^2+1844n+2160)/720, \\ I_{n+7}(7) &= (n^7+63n^6+1645n^5+22995n^4+184534n^3+841302n^2+1983540n+1809360)/5040. \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that  $I_{n+k}(k) = \sum_{i=0}^k a_{ki}n^i$ . It can be shown that the constant term of the polynomial  $P_{h+1}(n)$ , where  $h \geq 0$ , is zero. Thus, we can write  $P_{h+1}(n) = \sum_{j=1}^{h+1} p_{h+1,j}n^j$ . From the proof of Theorem 3 we have

$$I_{n+k+1}(k+1) = I_{k+1}(k+1) + \sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{h=0}^i \sum_{j=1}^{h+1} \binom{i}{h} a_{ki} p_{h+1,j} n^j.$$

Therefore, if  $I_{n+k+1}(k+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} a_{k+1,i} n^i$ , then the coefficients of  $I_{n+k+1}(k+1)$  is related to the coefficients of  $I_{n+k}(k)$  and  $P_{h+1}(n)$  and we have

$$a_{k+1,l} = \begin{cases} I_{k+1}(k+1), & \text{if } l = 0; \\ \sum_{i=l-1}^k \sum_{h=l-1}^i \binom{i}{h} a_{ki} p_{h+1,l}, & \text{if } 1 \leq l \leq k; \\ \frac{1}{(k+1)!}, & \text{if } l = k+1. \end{cases}$$

As a consequence of the previous theorem we have the following corollary.

**Corollary 4.** For each real number  $x$  we have  $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} I_n(j) \left(\frac{x}{n}\right)^j = e^x$ .

From Euler's pentagonal number theorem we have

$$Q(z) = \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1 - z^j) = \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}} (-1)^i z^{i(3i-1)/2}.$$

Set  $q_0 = Q(1/2)$ ,  $q_1 = Q'(1/2)$  and  $q_2 = Q''(1/2)/2$ .

**Corollary 5.** For each  $k, l \geq 1$ ,

$$\frac{I_{n+l}(n)}{I_{n+k}(k)} = \frac{2^{2n+l-1} k!}{\sqrt{\pi n}^{k+1/2}} \left( q_0 - \frac{8q_0 l^2 + 2(q_1 - q_0)l + q_2 - 2q_1 + (1 + 8k! a_{k,k-1}) q_0}{8n} + O(n^{-2}) \right).$$

*Proof.* If  $k \geq 2$  then

$$\begin{aligned} I_{n+k}(k) &= \frac{n^k}{k!} \left( 1 + \frac{a_{k,k-1} k!}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} \frac{a_{ki} k!}{n^{k-i-2}} \right) \\ &= \frac{n^k}{k!} \left( 1 + \frac{a_{k,k-1} k!}{n} + O(n^{-2}) \right). \end{aligned}$$

If  $k = 1$  then we have the same result. Combining this with the result of Louchard and Prodinger, which is

$$I_{n+l}(n) = \frac{2^{2n+l-1}}{\sqrt{\pi n}} \left( q_0 - \frac{8q_0 l^2 + 2(q_1 - q_0)l + q_2 - 2q_1 + q_0}{8n} + O(n^{-2}) \right),$$

we obtain the desired asymptotic formula.  $\square$

Let  $k$  and  $l$  be two fixed positive integers. We can see that after a sufficiently large number of terms, the sequence  $\{I_{n+l}(n) : n \geq 0\}$  increases faster than the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$ . Indeed, from Corollary 5

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{I_{n+k}(k)}{I_{n+l}(n)} = 0.$$

### 3 Inversion numbers and integrals

We will use Equation (1) to prove algebraically that the generating function of the sequence  $\{I_n(k) : k = 0, 1, \dots, \binom{n}{2}\}$  is

$$\Phi_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\binom{n}{2}} I_n(k) x^k = \prod_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} x^i. \quad (5)$$

It can be easily verified that Equation (5) holds if  $n = 1, 2$ . Suppose  $n \geq 3$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\Phi_{n-1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x^j &= \left( \sum_{i=0}^{\binom{n-1}{2}} I_{n-1}(i) x^i \right) \left( \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x^j \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\binom{n}{2}} \left( \sum_{i+j=k} I_{n-1}(i) \right) x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\binom{n}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=\max\{0, k-n+1\}}^{\min\{k, \binom{n-1}{2}\}} I_{n-1}(i) \right) x^k.\end{aligned}$$

From this, we get  $\Phi_{n-1}(x) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} x^j = \Phi_n(x)$ . Using this and an induction argument proves (5).

For each multi-index  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ , where each  $\alpha_i$  is a nonnegative integer, we define  $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$  and  $|\alpha| = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n$ . The following lemma is the generalized Leibniz's rule for differentiation.

**Lemma 6.** *If  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  are analytic complex valued functions in an open set  $U \subset \mathbb{C}$ , then*

$$\frac{d^m}{dz^m} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j(z) = \sum_{|\alpha|=m} \frac{m!}{\alpha!} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j^{(\alpha_j)}(z)$$

for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and for all  $z \in U$ .

*Proof.* We prove the lemma by induction on  $m$ . Notice that the lemma is clear if  $m = 1$ . Suppose that the lemma holds for  $m = k$ . Now we show that the lemma is true for  $m = k + 1$ . Using the induction hypothesis we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^{k+1}}{dz^{k+1}} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j^{(\alpha_j)}(z) \\ &= \sum_{|\alpha|=k} \sum_{|\beta|=1} \frac{k!}{\alpha!} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j^{(\alpha_j+\beta_j)}(z).\end{aligned}$$

If  $\beta_j = 1$  then

$$\frac{(k+1)!}{(\alpha+\beta)!} = \frac{k+1}{\alpha_j+\beta_j} \cdot \frac{k!}{\alpha!}.$$

Now, let  $\gamma = \alpha + \beta$ . Then  $|\gamma| = |\alpha| + |\beta| = k + 1$  and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d^{k+1}}{dz^{k+1}} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j(z) &= \sum_{|\gamma|=k+1} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\gamma_j}{k+1} \cdot \frac{(k+1)!}{\gamma!} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j^{(\gamma_j)}(z) \\ &= \sum_{|\gamma|=k+1} \frac{(k+1)!}{\gamma!} \prod_{j=1}^n f_j^{(\gamma_j)}(z).\end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of the lemma. □

**Theorem 7.** *Let  $f : D \subset \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and suppose that  $f$  is analytic in an open set  $U \subset D$ . If  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathcal{C}$  is a closed simple contour lying inside  $U$  and  $z_0$  is any point interior to  $\mathcal{C}$ , then for all positive integer  $k$  we have*

$$\int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{1}{(z-z_0)^{k+1}} \left( \prod_{l=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} [f(z)]^i \right) dz = \frac{2\pi i}{k!} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq \binom{m}{2}} I_m(j) M_j(z_0), \quad (6)$$

where

$$M_j(z_0) = \sum_{|(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_j)|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha_1! \cdots \alpha_j!} f^{(\alpha_1)}(z_0) \cdots f^{(\alpha_j)}(z_0).$$

*Proof.* Letting  $x = f(z)$  in Equation (5), dividing by  $(z - z_0)^{k+1}$  and then integrating we get

$$\int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{1}{(z - z_0)^{k+1}} \left( \prod_{l=1}^m \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} [f(z)]^i \right) dz = \sum_{0 \leq j \leq \binom{m}{2}} I_m(j) \int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{[f(z)]^j}{(z - z_0)^{k+1}} dz. \quad (7)$$

By Cauchy's integral formula,

$$\int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{[f(z)]^j}{(z - z_0)^{k+1}} dz = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } j = 0; \\ \frac{2\pi i}{k!} \cdot \frac{d^k([f(z_0)]^j)}{dz^k}, & \text{if } j \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

Using the generalized Leibniz's rule for differentiation we get

$$\frac{d^k([f(z_0)]^j)}{dz^k} = \sum_{|\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_j|=k} \frac{k!}{\alpha_1! \cdots \alpha_j!} f^{(\alpha_1)}(z_0) \cdots f^{(\alpha_j)}(z_0), \quad (8)$$

for all  $j \geq 1$ . Hence, Equation (6) follows from Equations (7) and (8).  $\square$

If we let  $z_0 = 0$ ,  $f(z) = z$  and  $m = n + k$ , we have the following corollary.

**Corollary 8.** *Let  $k$  be a fixed positive integer. Then for each nonnegative integer  $n$  we have*

$$\int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{(1+z)(1+z+z^2) \cdots (1+z+\cdots+z^{n+k-1})}{z^{k+1}} dz = 2\pi i I_{n+k}(k),$$

where  $\mathcal{C}$  is any simple closed contour containing the origin.

**Example 9.** Using the previous corollary we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{(1+z)(1+z+z^2) \cdots (1+z+\cdots+z^n)}{z^2} dz &= 2n\pi i, \\ \int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{(1+z)(1+z+z^2) \cdots (1+z+\cdots+z^{n+1})}{z^3} dz &= (n^2 + 3n)\pi i, \\ \int_{\mathcal{C}} \frac{(1+z)(1+z+z^2) \cdots (1+z+\cdots+z^{n+2})}{z^4} dz &= \frac{(n^3 + 9n^2 + 20n + 6)\pi i}{3}, \end{aligned}$$

for all  $n \geq 0$ , where  $\mathcal{C}$  is any closed contour containing the origin.

## 4 Hankel and inverse binomial transforms

Let  $A = \{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a sequence. The **inverse binomial transform** of the sequence  $A$  is the sequence denoted by  $B^{-1}(A) = \{b_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  where  $b_n$  is defined by the formula

$$b_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{n-k} \binom{n}{k} a_k$$

for all  $n \geq 0$ . Let  $H = [h_{ij}]_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}}$ , where  $h_{ij} = a_{i+j-2}$ . Thus

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & \cdots \\ a_1 & a_2 & a_3 & \cdots \\ a_2 & a_3 & a_4 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}.$$

The **Hankel matrix**  $H_n$  of order  $n$  of the sequence  $A$  is defined to be the  $(n+1) \times (n+1)$  upper left submatrix of  $H$ , that is,  $H_n = [h_{ij}]_{1 \leq i,j \leq n+1}$ . Let  $h_n$  denote the determinant of the Hankel matrix  $H_n$  of order  $n$ . The sequence  $H(A) = \{h_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is called the **Hankel transform** of the sequence  $A$ .

Some properties of the Hankel transform are discussed in [3] and [7]. Further, Spivey and Steil [7] proved that the Hankel transform is invariant under falling  $k$ -binomial transform and since the inverse binomial transform is just a special type of a falling  $k$ -binomial transform, where  $k = -1$ , it follows that the Hankel transform is also invariant under inverse binomial transform. (For more details, we refer the reader to the work of Spivey and Steil [7].) Hence we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 10.** If  $A = \{a_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is a sequence, then  $H(B^{-1}(A)) = H(A)$ .

Given a sequence  $A = \{a_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ , the **support** of  $A$  is defined by  $\text{supp}(A) = \{k : a_k \neq 0\}$ . The set of all real sequences having a finite support is denoted by  $c_{00}$ . Note that  $c_{00}$  is a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  under the usual componentwise addition and scalar multiplication.

The next two theorems characterize the inverse binomial transform and the Hankel transform of the sequence  $\{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$ .

**Theorem 11.** For each  $k \geq 1$ , let  $A_k = \{I_{n+k}(k) : n \geq 0\}$  and  $I_{n+k}(k) = \sum_{i=0}^k a_{ki}n^i$ . Then  $B^{-1}(A_k) = \{b_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty} \in c_{00}$  and  $b_m = m! \sum_{i=m}^k a_{ki}S(i, m)$ , for all  $1 \leq m \leq k$ , where  $S(i, m)$  is a Stirling number of the second kind, and  $b_m = 0$  for all  $m > k$ .

*Proof.* Let  $m \geq 1$ . Using the definition, we have

$$b_m = a_{k0} \sum_{n=0}^m (-1)^{m-n} \binom{m}{n} + \sum_{i=1}^k a_{ki} \left( \sum_{n=0}^m (-1)^{m-n} \binom{m}{n} n^i \right).$$

Note that we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^m (-1)^{m-n} \binom{m}{n} = 0$$

and

$$S(i, m) = \frac{1}{m!} \sum_{n=0}^m (-1)^{m-n} \binom{m}{n} n^i,$$

for all  $1 \leq m \leq i$ . Define  $\Delta_x$  by  $\Delta_x = x \frac{d}{dx}$ . Then for  $1 \leq i < m$

$$\Delta_x^i (x-1)^m = \sum_{n=0}^m (-1)^{m-n} \binom{m}{n} n^i x^n.$$

Since  $\Delta_x (x-1)^m = mx(x-1)^{m-1}$  then  $(x-1)^{m-1}$  divides  $\Delta_x (x-1)^m$ . Suppose that  $1 \leq i < m-1$  and  $(x-1)^{m-i}$  divides  $\Delta_x^i (x-1)^m$ . Thus  $\Delta_x^i (x-1)^m = (x-1)^{m-i} g_i(x)$  for some polynomial  $g_i(x)$ . Applying  $\Delta_x$  once more, we get

$$\Delta_x^{i+1} (x-1)^m = x \frac{d[(x-1)^{m-i} g_i(x)]}{dx} = x(m-i)(x-1)^{m-i-1} g_i(x) + x(x-1)^{m-i} g_i'(x).$$

Hence  $(x-1)^{m-(i+1)}$  divides  $\Delta_x^{i+1} (x-1)^m$ . This shows that for all  $m > i \geq 1$ , we can find a polynomial  $g_i(x)$  satisfying  $\Delta_x^i (x-1)^m = (x-1)^{m-i} g_i(x)$ . If we let  $x = 1$  we get

$$\sum_{n=0}^m (-1)^{m-n} \binom{m}{n} n^i = \Delta_x^i (x-1)^m \Big|_{x=1} = 0$$

for all  $m > i$ . From these, we have

$$b_m = m! \sum_{i=m}^k a_{ki} S(i, m)$$

for all  $1 \leq m \leq k$  and  $b_m = 0$  for all  $m > k$ . Therefore  $\{b_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty} \in c_{00}$ .  $\square$

Now,  $b_k = k! a_{kk} S(k, k) = 1$ . Therefore, the last nonzero term of  $B^{-1}(A_k)$  is 1. Let  $A_0 = \{I_n(0) : n \geq 1\}$ . Then  $A_0 = \{1, 1, \dots\}$  and  $B^{-1}(A_0) = \{1, 0, 0, \dots\}$ . From these it follows that  $\{B^{-1}(A_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  forms a basis for  $c_{00}$ .

**Example 12.** Using the above theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned} B^{-1}(A_1) &= \{0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots\}, \\ B^{-1}(A_2) &= \{0, 2, 1, 0, 0, 0, \dots\}, \\ B^{-1}(A_3) &= \{1, 5, 4, 1, 0, 0, \dots\}, \\ B^{-1}(A_4) &= \{5, 15, 14, 6, 1, 0, \dots\}. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 13.** For each positive integer  $k$ ,  $H(A_k) \in c_{00}$ . Furthermore,  $\{H(A_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  forms a basis for  $c_{00}$ .

*Proof.* First, note that  $H(A_0) = H(B^{-1}(A_0)) = B^{-1}(A_0)$ . Suppose  $k \geq 1$ . Let  $B^{-1}(A_k) = \{b_m\}_{m=0}^{\infty}$  and  $H(B^{-1}(A)) = \{h_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ . From the previous theorem, we have  $b_m = 0$  for all  $m > k$ . Hence the  $(m+1)$ st row of the  $m$ th order Hankel matrix  $H_m$  has only zero entries for all  $m > k$ . Consequently, the determinant of  $H_m$  is zero for all  $m > k$ . Therefore  $h_m = 0$  for all  $m > k$ . Since  $H(A) = H(B^{-1}(A))$ , it follows that the Hankel transform of  $A_k$  lies in  $c_{00}$ . Consider the Hankel matrix of  $B^{-1}(A_k)$  of order  $k$ . Then we have  $h_{ij} = 0$  for all  $i + j > k + 2$  and  $h_{ij} = 1$  for all  $i + j = k + 2$ . It follows that  $h_k = -1$  if  $k \equiv 1, 2 \pmod{4}$  and  $h_k = 1$  if  $k \equiv 0, 3 \pmod{4}$ . Therefore the last nonzero term of the Hankel transform of  $A_k$  is either  $-1$  or  $1$ . Consequently,  $\{H(A_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is a basis for  $c_{00}$ .  $\square$

**Example 14.** From Example 12, we get the following

$$\begin{aligned} H(A_1) &= \{0, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots\}, \\ H(A_2) &= \{0, -4, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots\}, \\ H(A_3) &= \{1, -21, -25, 1, 0, 0, 0, \dots\}, \\ H(A_4) &= \{5, -155, -559, 155, 1, 0, \dots\}. \end{aligned}$$

In general, one can similarly prove the following theorem.

**Theorem 15.** For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  let  $p_k(n)$  be a polynomial in the variable  $n$  such that  $\deg p_k(n) = k$ . Let  $A_k = \{p_k(n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Then  $B^{-1}(A_k), H(A_k) \in c_{00}$ . Furthermore  $\{B^{-1}(A_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  or  $\{H(A_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  forms a basis for  $c_{00}$ .

## References

- [1] M. AIGNER, *Combinatorial Theory*, Springer-Verlag, 1997.
- [2] N. ERIKSEN,  $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximation of sorting by reversals and transpositions, *Theor. Comput. Sci.* **289** (2002), 517–529.
- [3] J. LAYMAN, *The Hankel transform and some of its properties*, *J. of Integer Seq.* **4** (2001), Article 01.1.5.
- [4] G. LOUCHARD AND H. PRODINGER, *The number of inversions in permutations: A saddle point approach*, *J. of Integer Seq.* **6** (2003), Article 03.2.8.
- [5] D. INDONG AND G. PERALTA, *Inversions of permutations in symmetric, alternating and dihedral groups*, *J. of Integer Seq.* **11** (2008), Article 08.4.3.
- [6] B. H. MARGOLIUS, *Permutations with inversions*, *J. of Integer Seq.* **4** (2001), Article 01.2.4.
- [7] M. SPIVEY AND L. STEIL, *The  $k$ -binomial transform and the Hankel transform*, *J. of Integer Seq.* **9** (2006), Article 06.1.1.