

COROLLARY 2. Suppose  $f_{-n}(x)$  is the associated factor sequence for  $f(D)$  and  $g_{-n}(x)$  is the associated factor sequence for  $g(D)$ , and suppose

$$g_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} f_{-k}(x),$$

for constants  $c_{-n,k}$ . Then the sequence  $r_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} x^{-k}$  is the associated factor sequence for  $g(f^{-1}(D))$ .

### 11. APPLICATIONS TO FORMAL POWER SERIES

Given a formal power series

$$f(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{k!} t^k,$$

we can define a linear functional  $L$  in  $P^*$  by  $\langle L | x^k \rangle = a_k$ . We call  $L$  the *generating functional* of the sequence  $a_k$ . The series  $f(t)$  is the indicator of the linear functional  $L$  and  $L = f(A)$ .

When  $a_0 = 0$  and  $a_1 \neq 0$  we call  $f(t)$  a *delta series*. We have seen that the composition  $f(g(t))$  is well defined when the constant coefficient of  $g(t)$  vanishes, in particular when  $g(t)$  is a delta series, and that

$$f(g(t)) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle f(g(A)) | x^k \rangle}{k!} t^k. \tag{*}$$

If  $f(t)$  is the indicator of the delta functional  $L$ , we have seen (Corollary 1 to Theorem 6) that

$$f^{-1}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle \tilde{L} | x^k \rangle}{k!} t^k.$$

That is, the reciprocal series  $f^{-1}(t)$  is the indicator of  $\tilde{L}$ , the reciprocal functional to  $L$ .

If  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$  are the indicators of the delta functionals  $L$  and  $M$ , then Theorem 6 tells us that  $f(g(t))$  is the indicator of the delta functional  $f(g(A)) = M \circ L$ , and (\*) becomes

$$f(g(t)) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle M \circ L | x^k \rangle}{k!} t^k. \tag{**}$$

The problem of determining the composition of formal power series is thus equivalent to the problem of determining the composition of delta functionals. It turns out that the latter can often be explicitly computed by the present methods, as we shall see.

We can relate the composition of delta functionals to the umbral composition of sequences of binomial type. Suppose  $p_n(x)$  and  $q_n(x)$  are the conjugate sequences for the delta functionals  $L = f(A)$  and  $M = g(A)$ , hence the associated sequences for  $\tilde{L}$  and  $\tilde{M}$ . Then  $q_n(\mathbf{p}(x))$  is the associated sequence for  $\widetilde{L \circ M}$ , and thus the conjugate sequence for  $\widetilde{L \circ M} = (g^{-1} \circ f^{-1})^{-1}(A) = (f \circ g)(A) = M \circ L$ . By definition therefore,

$$q_n(\mathbf{p}(x)) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\langle (M \circ L)^k | x^n \rangle}{k!} x^k. \tag{***}$$

Comparing (\*\*) and (\*\*\*), we see that the coefficient of  $t^n/n!$  in  $f(g(t))$  is the linear coefficient in  $q_n(\mathbf{p}(x))$ .

By definition of umbral composition, we have

$$q_n(\mathbf{p}(x)) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \langle M^j | x^n \rangle \langle L^k | x^j \rangle x^k$$

and so (\*\*\*) gives

$$\langle (M \circ L)^k | x^n \rangle = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \langle M^j | x^n \rangle \langle L^k | x^j \rangle.$$

Thus the coefficient of  $t^n/n!$  in  $f(g(t))$  is

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \frac{1}{j!} \langle M^j | x^n \rangle \langle L | x^j \rangle. \tag{****}$$

As an example, we compute the power series  $(1 + g(t))^r - 1$ , where  $r$  is a real number, and  $g(t)$  is a delta series. Here  $f(t)$  is the delta series  $f(t) = (1 + t)^r - 1$ . Expanding  $L = f(A)$  in powers of  $A$  by means of the binomial series, we find that  $\langle L | x^j \rangle = (r)_j - \delta_{j,0}$  and thus the coefficient of  $t^n/n!$  in  $(1 + g(t))^r - 1$  is

$$\sum_{j=1}^n \binom{r}{j} \langle M^j | x^n \rangle. \tag{*****}$$

Formula (\*\*\*\*\*) yields at once Faà di Bruno's formula for the composition of two formal power series. The special cases of this formula to be found in the literature are obtained by explicitly computing a sequence of binomial type. For example, setting  $g(t) = \log(1 + t)$ , we find immediately from (\*\*\*\*\*) that the coefficients of  $f(\log(1 + t))$  are given by umbral composition of  $\phi_n(\mathbf{a})$ , when  $\phi_n(x)$  are the Stirling polynomials, and  $\mathbf{a}$  is the umbral sequence  $a_n$  of coefficients of  $f(t)$ . Similarly, the coefficients of  $f(e^t - 1)$  are given by  $\phi_n(\mathbf{a})$ , when  $\phi_n(x)$  are the exponential polynomials.

8.2. We now compute the reciprocal polynomials to the Bell polynomials; that is, the associated sequence  $p_n(x)$  for the delta functional  $L = AN = x_1A + x_2A^2/2! + x_3A^3/3! + \dots$ . We may take  $x_1 = 1$ . We wish to use the Transfer Formula  $p_n(x) = xP^{-n}x^{n-1}$ , where  $P = \mu(N)$ , so we compute  $P^{-n}$ .

The indicator of  $P^{-n}$  is  $(1 + g(t))^{-n}$ , where  $g(t)$  is the indicator of  $M = N - \epsilon$ . Hence, the coefficient of  $D^k/k!$  in the expansion of  $P^{-n}$  is given by (\*\*\*\*), with  $r = -n$  and  $n = k$ . The computation of (\*\*\*\*) is straightforward by binomial expansion and by the identity

$$\langle N^i | x^k \rangle = \frac{\langle L^i | x^{k+i} \rangle}{(k+i)_i} = \frac{i! k!}{(k+i)!} B_{k+i,i}.$$

We obtain

$$P^{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^i \frac{(n+j-1)_j}{(j-i)!(k+i)!} B_{k+i,i} D^k$$

and then

$$b_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^i \frac{(n+j-1)_{k+j}}{(j-i)!(k+i)!} B_{k+i,i} x^{n-k}.$$

Similarly, the associated factor sequence to the Bell polynomials is

$$f_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i=0}^j (-1)^{k+j-i} \frac{(n+k)_{k+j}}{(j-i)!(k+i)!} B_{k+i,i} x^{n-k}.$$

Umbral techniques can be used in several ways to compute power series expansions.

Consider the function  $[\log(1+t)]^r$ . If we take  $f(t) = t^r + t$  and  $g(t) = \log(1+t)$ , then both  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$  are delta series, and the expansion of  $f(g(t))$  differs from the desired one only by the addition of  $\log(1+t)$ . To find the coefficients of  $f(g(t))$  we compute the umbral composition  $q_n(\mathbf{p}(x))$ , where  $q_n(x)$  is the conjugate sequence for  $g(A)$  and  $p_n(x)$  is the conjugate sequence for  $f(A)$ . The sequence  $q_n(x)$  is the associated sequence for  $g^{-1}(A) = e^A - \epsilon = \epsilon_1 - \epsilon$ , and we have seen that  $q_n(x) = (x)_n = \sum_{k=0}^n s(n, k)x^k$ , where  $s(n, k)$  are Stirling numbers of the first kind. It is even easier to compute the polynomials  $p_n(x)$ . For

$$\begin{aligned} p_n(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{\langle (A^r + A)^k | x^n \rangle}{k!} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{k}{(n-k)(n-1)} \frac{n!}{k!} x^k. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the linear coefficient in  $q_n(\mathbf{p}(x))$  is  $r!s(n, r) + s(n, 1) = r!s(n, r) + (-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!$ , and so

$$[\log(1+t)]^r = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{r!s(k, r)}{k!} x^k.$$

Consider next the function  $\log(1 + \sin t)$ . We have  $f(t) = \log(1 + t)$  and  $g(t) = \sin t$ . Since  $M = g(A) = \sin A$ , by expansion we have

$$M^j = \frac{1}{(2i)^j} \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{j}{k} (-1)^{j-k} e^{iA(2k-j)}$$

But  $\langle e^{mA} | x^n \rangle = \langle (mA)^n/n! | x^n \rangle = m^n$  and so

$$\langle M^j | x^n \rangle = \frac{1}{(2i)^j} \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{j}{k} (-1)^{j-k} i^n (2k-j)^n.$$

Now if  $L = f(A) = \log(1 + A)$ , then

$$\langle L | x^j \rangle = \langle [(-1)^{j+1}/j] A^j | x^j \rangle = (-1)^{j+1}(j-1)!$$

Thus the coefficient of  $t^n/n!$  in  $\log(1 + \sin t)$  is

$$\sum_{j=0}^n \sum_{k=0}^j \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{j2^j} i^{n-j} \binom{j}{k} (2k-j)^n.$$

Next we give the generating functions of associated and Sheffer sequences.

If  $p_n(x)$  is the associated sequence for the delta functional  $L = f(A)$ , then by the Expansion Theorem

$$\epsilon_y = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{p_k(y)}{k!} f(A)^k.$$

Passing to indicators gives

$$e^{yt} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{p_k(y)}{k!} f(t)^k.$$

Finally, replacing  $f(t)$  by  $t$  gives

$$e^{yf^{-1}(t)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{p_k(y)}{k!} t^k.$$

Thus, if  $f(t)$  is a delta series its reciprocal is the series

$$f^{-1}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{p_k'(0)}{k!} t^k,$$

where  $p_n(x)$  are the associated polynomials to  $f(A)$ . Our recipe for finding the reciprocal of a formal power series is thus the following: Compute the associated polynomials, possibly by using the Recurrence Formula or the Transfer Formula, and then take the coefficients of  $x$  in these polynomials. It turns out that computing the whole polynomial sequence is often speedier than computing a single coefficient.

We turn to some more examples.

2.6. The exponential polynomials  $\phi_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n S(n, k)x^k$  are the associated polynomials for  $f^{-1}(A) = \log(1 + A)$ . Thus

$$e^{x(e^t-1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\phi_k(x)}{k!} t^k.$$

4.5. The Abel polynomials  $p_n(x) = x(x - an)^{n-1}$  have the generating function

$$e^{xf^{-1}(t)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x(x - ak)^{k-1}}{k!} t^k,$$

where  $f(t) = te^{at}$ .

7.5. The basic Laguerre polynomials

$$L_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!} \binom{n-1}{k-1} (-x)^k$$

have the generating function

$$e^{xt/(t-1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{L_k(x)}{k!} t^k.$$

If  $s_n(x)$  is the Sheffer sequence for  $N = f(t)$  with respect to the delta functional  $L = g(t)$ , then by Theorem 10

$$\epsilon_y N^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s_k(y)}{k!} L^k.$$

Taking indicators and simplifying as before, we find the generating function

$$\frac{1}{f(g^{-1}(t))} e^{yg^{-1}(t)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{s_k(y)}{k!} t^k.$$

For the higher Laguerre polynomials  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  we have  $f(t) = (1 - t)^{-\alpha-1}$  and  $g(t) = t(t - 1)^{-1}$ , hence

$$(1 - t)^{-\alpha-1} e^{xt/(t-1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{L_k^{(\alpha)}(x)}{k!} t^k.$$

For the Hermite polynomials of variance  $v$ ,  $H_n^{(v)}(x)$ , we have  $f(t) = e^{vt^2/2}$  and  $g(t) = t$ . Thus

$$e^{-vt^2/2} e^{xt} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{H_k^{(v)}(x)}{k!} t^k.$$

Lagrange's inversion formula is immediate in the present notation. It states that if  $f(t)$  is a delta series, then the  $n$ th coefficient in  $f^{-1}(t)^k$  equals the  $(n - k)$ th coefficient in  $(f(t)/t)^{-n}$ , multiplied by  $k/n$ . In our notation, this reads

$$\frac{\langle \tilde{L}^k | x^n \rangle}{n!} = \frac{k}{n} \frac{\langle M^{-n} | x^{n-k} \rangle}{(n - k)!},$$

where the indicator of  $L = AM$  is  $f(t)$ . The verification of this fact is now a trivial computation with adjoints. If  $p_n(x)$  is the associated sequence for  $L$ , then using the Transfer Formula we find

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \tilde{L}^k | x^n \rangle &= \langle A^k | p_n(x) \rangle = \langle A^k | x\mu(M)^{-n} x^{n-1} \rangle \\ &= \langle kA^{k-1} | \mu(M)^{-n} x^{n-1} \rangle = k \langle A^{k-1} M^{-n} | x^{n-1} \rangle \\ &= k \langle M^{-n} | D^{k-1} x^{n-1} \rangle = \frac{k}{n} (n)_k \langle M^{-n} | x^{n-k} \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

We can just as easily prove the variants of the Lagrange inversion formulas, for example: Given two delta series  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$ , the  $n$ th coefficient in  $g(f^{-1}(t))$ , multiplied by  $n$ , equals the  $(n - 1)$ st coefficient in  $g'(t)(f(t)/t)^{-n}$ . In symbols:

$$\langle g(f^{-1}(A)) | x^n \rangle = \left\langle g'(A) \left( \frac{f(A)}{A} \right)^{-n} \middle| x^{n-1} \right\rangle.$$

But this is also an immediate consequence of adjointness. Indeed, the right side can be written as

$$\langle g(A) | xP^{-n}x^{n-1} \rangle,$$

where  $P = \mu(f(A)/A)$ . We recognize an instance of the Transfer Formula:  $\langle g(A) | p_n(x) \rangle$ , where  $p_n(x)$  are the associated polynomials for  $f(A)$ . Letting  $\alpha$  be the umbral operator mapping  $x^n$  to  $p_n(x)$ , and recalling that the automorphism  $\alpha^*$  maps  $f(A)$  to  $A$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle g(A) | p_n(x) \rangle &= \langle g(A) | \alpha x^n \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha^* g(A) | x^n \rangle = \langle g(f^{-1}(A)) | x^n \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

It is hard to imagine a simpler proof.

A variant of the same reasoning gives Hermite's version of the Lagrange inversion formula, namely,

$$\left\langle \frac{Ag(f^{-1}(A))}{f^{-1}(A)f'(f^{-1}(A))} \mid x^n \right\rangle = \left\langle g(A) \left( \frac{f(A)}{A} \right)^{-n} \mid x^n \right\rangle.$$

The generating functions of factor sequences cannot be expressed by ordinary generating functions, and lead us to introduce an analogous formal device. Let  $f(t)$  be a delta series and let  $g(t)$  be a formal power series. We define the *Cigler transform* of the pair  $(f, g)$ , in symbols

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^0 g(t) e^{xf(t)} dt$$

to be the formal power series obtained after term-by-term integration of

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 g(f^{-1}(s))(f^{-1})'(s) e^{sx} ds.$$

The point is that one can compute with the Cigler transform in much the same way as with an ordinary integral, for example,

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 g(t) e^{xf(t)} dt + \int_{-\infty}^0 g(t) e^{xh(t)} dt = \int_{-\infty}^0 g(t) e^{x(f(t)+h(t))} dt;$$

thus the Cigler transform is an "integral" analog of a formal power series.

If  $f_{-n}(x)$  is the associated factor sequence of the delta operator  $Q = f(D)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} f_{-1}(x) &= Q' \frac{1}{x} = \int_{-\infty}^0 f'(t) e^{xt} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{xf^{-1}(t)} dt, \end{aligned}$$

and more generally, applying  $Q$  successively,

$$f_{-n}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \int_{-\infty}^0 t^{n-1} e^{xf^{-1}(t)} dt;$$

thus the generating function of  $f_{-n}(x)$  can be expressed by the Cigler transform:

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} f_{-k}(x) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st+xf^{-1}(t)} dt.$$

Similarly, if  $g_n(x) = Tf_{-n}(x)$  is the factor sequence obtained from the associated factor sequence by applying the invertible shift-invariant operator

$T = g(D)$ , then by a Cigler transform one can express the generating function of  $g_{-n}(x)$  in the form

$$\begin{aligned} g_{-1}(x) &= TQ' \frac{1}{x} = \int_{-\infty}^0 g(t) f'(t) e^{xt} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^0 g(f^{-1}(t)) e^{xf^{-1}(t)} dt, \end{aligned}$$

whence

$$g_{-n}(x) = Q^{n-1} TQ' \frac{1}{x} = \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{(-1)^{n-1} t^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} g(f^{-1}(t)) e^{xf^{-1}(t)} dt$$

and again

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} g_{-k}(x) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 g(f^{-1}(t)) e^{-st+xf^{-1}(t)} dt.$$

## 12. EXAMPLES OF FACTOR SEQUENCES

### 2.7. The negative factorial powers

$$(x)_{-n} = \frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2) \cdots (x+n)}$$

are the associated factor sequence for the operator  $\Delta = \sigma(\epsilon_1 - \epsilon)$ . This follows from the Recurrence Formula:

$$\Delta' x^{-1}(x)_{-n} = E^1 x^{-1}(x)_{-n} = (x)_{-n-1}.$$

Thus we immediately have

$$(x+y)_{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} (y)_k (x)_{-n-k},$$

as well as

$$\Delta^m (x)_{-n} = (-n)_m (x)_{-n-m}.$$

Corollary 2 to Theorem 17 gives

$$(x)_{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{\langle L^n | x^{n+k} \rangle}{n!} x^{-n-k},$$

where  $L = \epsilon_1 - \epsilon$ . But  $q_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (\langle L^k | x^n \rangle / k!) x^k$  is the conjugate sequence for  $L$ . Thus

$$\langle L^n | x^{n+k} \rangle / n! = S(n+k, n),$$



where  $S(n, k)$  are the Stirling numbers of the second kind. Therefore, we obtain the identity

$$\frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2)\cdots(x+n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k S(n+k, n) x^{-n-k}.$$

3.5. A similar treatment may be given to the associated factor sequence for  $\nabla = \sigma(\epsilon - \epsilon_{-1})$ , which is

$$\langle x \rangle_{-n} = \frac{(-1)^n}{(x-1)(x-2)\cdots(x-n)}.$$

We state as a sample:

$$\langle x \rangle_{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} S(n+k, n) x^{-n-k}.$$

4.6. The associated factor sequence for the Abel operator  $De^{aD}$  is given most easily by the Transfer Formula:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{-n}(x, a) &= xE^{an}x^{-n-1} \\ &= x(x+an)^{-n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the identity

$$(x+y)(x+y+an)^{-n-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} xy(y+ak)^{k-1} (x+a(n-k))^{-n-k-1}$$

is immediate.

Corollary 2 of Theorem 17 yields

$$A_{-n}(x, a) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n-1}{k} (an)^k x^{-n-k}.$$

6.6. The *negative Steffensen polynomials* are the associated factor sequence for  $e^{-D/2}(e^D - 1)$ , and thus by Corollary 1 to Theorem 17,

$$\begin{aligned} x^{[-n]} &= xE^{-n/2}x^{-1}(x)_{-n} \\ &= x(x - n/2 - 1)_{-n-1} \\ &= \frac{x}{(x - n/2)(x - n/2 + 1)\cdots(x + n/2)}. \end{aligned}$$

7.6. The associated factor sequence for the Laguerre operator  $D/(D - I)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} L_{-n}(x) &= x(D - I)^{-n} x^{-n-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} (-1)^{-n-k} (-n-1)_k x^{-n-k}, \end{aligned}$$

this by the Transfer Formula.

In view of Theorem 18, the factor sequence  $L_{-n}(x)$  is self-reciprocal, as expected.

If  $f_{-n}(x)$  is the associated factor sequence for the delta functional  $L$ , then the conjugate factor sequence  $g_{-n}(x)$  to  $f_{-n}(x)$  is the associated factor sequence for  $\bar{L}$ , the reciprocal to  $L$ . By Theorem 18, we have  $f_{-n}(g(x)) = g_{-n}(f(x)) = x^{-n}$ .

2.8. The *negative exponential polynomials*  $\phi_{-n}(x)$  are the conjugate factor sequence to  $(x)_{-n}$ , and are therefore the associated factor polynomials for  $\log(I + D)$ .

Corollary 2 to Theorem 17 gives

$$\phi_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k s(n+k, n) x^{-n-k},$$

where  $s(n, k)$  are the Stirling numbers of the first kind.

We have by Theorem 18 the umbral substitutions,

$$\begin{aligned} x^{-n} &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k s(n+k, n) (x)_{-n-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k S(n+k, n) \phi_{-n-k}(x), \end{aligned}$$

which are equivalent to the Stirling number identities

$$\sum_{k=0}^j s(n+k, n) S(n+j, n+k) = \delta_{j,0}$$

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^j S(n+k, n) s(n+j, n+k) = \delta_{j,0}.$$

By the Recurrence Formula,

$$\phi_{-n-1}(x) = (I + D)^{-1} x^{-1} \phi_{-n}(x)$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{-n}(x) &= x(I + D) \phi_{-n-1}(x) \\ &= \cdots = [x(I + D)]^k \phi_{-n-k}(x). \end{aligned}$$

Taking  $n = 1$  and  $k = n$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{-1}(x) &= [x(I + D)]^n \phi_{-1-n}(x) \\ &= e^{-x}(xD)^n e^x \phi_{-1-n}(x). \end{aligned}$$

3.6. The conjugate factor sequence to the sequence  $A_{-x}(x, a)$  is computed by Corollary 2 to Theorem 17:

$$\mu_{-n}(x, a) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{\langle \tilde{L}^n | x^{n+k} \rangle}{n!} x^{-n-k},$$

where  $\tilde{L}$  is the reciprocal to  $\epsilon_a A$ . However,

$$\frac{\langle \tilde{L}^n | x^{n+k} \rangle}{n!} = \binom{n+k-1}{n-1} \frac{[-a(n+k)]^k}{n!}$$

and thus

$$\mu_{-n}(x, a) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} \frac{[-a(n+k)]^k}{n!} x^{-n-k}.$$

The umbral identity  $x^{-n} = \mu_{-n}(\mathbf{A}(x, a), a)$  gives the elegant power series identity:

$$x^{-n-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} \frac{[-a(n+k)]^k}{n!} [x + a(n+k)]^{-n-k-1}.$$

We turn now to some connection-constant problems.

2.9. Determine the connection constants  $c_{-n,k}$  in

$$\frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2) \cdots (x+n)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_{-n,k}(-1)^k}{(x-1)(x-2) \cdots (x-k)}.$$

Since  $(x)_{-n}$  is the associated factor sequence for  $g(D) = e^D - I$  and  $\langle x \rangle_{-k}$  is the associated factor sequence for  $f(D) = I - e^{-D}$ , we have  $g(f^{-1}(D)) = D/(I - D)$  and so

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} x^{-k} = L_{-n}(-x).$$

Thus

$$\frac{1}{(x+1)(x+2) \cdots (x+n)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k-n} \frac{(-n-1)_{k-n}}{(x-1)(x-2) \cdots (x-k)}.$$

6.7. Determine the constants  $c_{-n,k}$  in

$$\frac{x}{(x-n/2)(x-n/2+1) \cdots (x+n/2)} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_{-n,k}}{(x+1)(x+2) \cdots (x+k)}.$$

Since  $x^{\lfloor -n \rfloor}$  is the associated factor sequence for  $g(D) = e^{-D/2}(e^D - I)$  and

$(x)_{-n}$  is the associated factor sequence for  $f(D) = e^D - I$ , we have  $g(f^{-1}(D)) = D(I + D)^{-1/2}$ . Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} x^{-k} &= x(I + D)^{-n/2} x^{-n-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{-n/2}{k} (-n-1)_k x^{-n-k}, \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$c_{-n,k} = \binom{-n/2}{k-n} (-n-1)_{k-n}.$$

7.8. Determine the constants  $c_{-n,k}$  relating the Laguerre polynomials to the exponential polynomials:

$$L_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} \phi_{-k}(-x).$$

Since  $L_{-n}(x)$  is the associated factor sequence for  $g(D) = D/(D - I)$  and  $\phi_{-n}(-x)$  is the associated factor sequence for  $f(D) = \log(I - D)$ , we have  $g(f^{-1}(D)) = I - e^{-D}$  and so

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} x^{-k} = \langle x \rangle_{-n}.$$

Thus

$$c_{-n,k} = S(k, n)$$

and

$$L_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} S(k, n) \phi_{-k}(-x).$$

We postpone discussion of Hermite and higher-order Laguerre factor sequences until Section 13.

We conclude with some examples of Cigler transforms.

2.10. For the factor sequence  $(x)_{-n}$ , we obtain as a special case of the Cigler transform Nielsen's factorial expansion of the incomplete gamma function:

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} (x)_{-k} s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st} (1+t)^x dt.$$

4.9. For the Abel sequence  $A_{-n}(x, a)$  we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k \geq 1} A_{-k}(x, a) s^{k-1} &= \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st+xf^{-1}(t)} dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st} \left( \frac{t}{f^{-1}(t)} \right)^{x/a} dt, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$f(t) = te^{at}.$$

7.9. For the Laguerre sequence  $L_{-n}(x)$  we obtain

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} L_{-k}(x) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st+xt/(t-1)} dt.$$

2.11. For the negative exponential polynomials:

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} \phi_{-k}(x) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st+x(e^t-1)} dt.$$

4.10. For the sequence  $\mu_{-n}(x, a)$ , reciprocal to the Abel factor sequence:

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} \mu_{-k}(x, a) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-st+xt e^{at}} dt.$$

### 13. HERMITE AND LAGUERRE POLYNOMIALS

Theories of special functions often present those functions that are of frequent occurrence as special cases of some general concept, and the present development is no exception. In actual fact, however, those special sequences of polynomials that have actually occurred are best defined by their own structural conditions. Such axiomatic descriptions remain largely undiscovered, partially because of a deficiency of notational suppleness in the theory of special functions which it is the avowed purpose of the present work to remedy.

#### *Hermite Polynomials*

As an instance of such a structural characterization, we consider the following problem: Find all Appell sequences  $s_n(x)$  with the property that

$$\langle s_j(A) | s_n(x) \rangle = -(1/v) \langle s_{j-1}(A) | s_{n+1}(x) \rangle,$$

for some constant  $v$ .

By the Recurrence Formula,

$$\begin{aligned} s_{n+1}(x) &= (x + T(T^{-1}')) s_n(x) \\ &= (x + S) s_n(x), \end{aligned}$$

where  $s_n(x) = T^{-1}x^n$ . But this gives  $s_j(A) = -(1/v)(\partial_A + S^*) s_{j-1}(A)$ , whence  $S^*$  is multiplication by  $-vA$  and  $S = -vD$ , and thus  $T = e^{-vD^2/2}$ . The resulting polynomials are the Hermite polynomials  $H_n^{(v)}(x) = e^{-vD^2/2}x^n$  of variance  $v$ . For  $v = 1$ , we obtain the classical Hermite polynomials.

The elementary properties of the Hermite polynomials have been derived in "Finite Operator Calculus." We shall give a sampling of applications of the present methods. From the operational formula

$$(x - vD) p(x) = -e^{x^2/2v}(vD) e^{-x^2/2v} p(x),$$

one infers the recurrence

$$H_{n+j}^{(v)}(x) = (x - vD)^j H_n(x) = (-1)^j e^{x^2/2v}(vD)^j e^{-x^2/2v} H_n^{(v)}(x), \quad (*)$$

and for  $n = 0$  the Rodrigues formula

$$H_n^{(v)}(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2/2v}(vD)^n e^{-x^2/2v}.$$

Expanding (\*) by the Leibnitz formula gives

$$H_{n+j}^{(v)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^j (-v)^{j-k} \binom{j}{k} (n)_{j-k} H_k^{(v)}(x) H_{n-j+k}^{(v)}(x). \quad (**)$$

Replacing  $n$  by  $n - 2m$  and setting  $j = n$ , Eq. (\*\*) becomes

$$H_{2n-2m}^{(v)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-v)^{n-k} \binom{n}{k} (n - 2m)_{n-k} H_k^{(v)}(x) H_{k-2m}^{(v)}(x).$$

We recognize an umbral composition with the Laguerre polynomials

$$L_n^{(-2m)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n - 2m)_{n-k} x^k.$$

Using the fact that the Laguerre polynomials are self-reciprocal (proved later in this section, or see "Finite Operator Calculus"), we obtain

$$v^{2n} H_n^{(v)}(x) H_{n-2m}^{(v)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (n - 2m)_{n-k} H_{2k-2m}^{(v)}(x).$$

Changing  $n$  to  $n + m$  gives

$$v^{2n+2m}H_{n+m}^{(v)}(x) H_{n-m}^{(v)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n+m} \binom{n+m}{k} (n-m)_{n+m-k} H_{2k-2m}^{(v)}(x),$$

and finally letting  $j = k - m$  we have

$$v^{2n+2m}H_{n+m}^{(v)}(x) H_{n-m}^{(v)}(x) = \sum_{j=m}^n \binom{n+m}{j+m} (n-m)_{n-j} H_{2j}^{(v)}(x).$$

From this formula we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} v^{2n}[H_n^{(v)}(x)]^2 - v^{n+m}H_{n-m}^{(v)}(x) H_{n+m}^{(v)}(x) \\ = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{(n-m)!}{(j-m)!} \binom{n}{j} \left[ \binom{n}{m} \binom{j+m}{m} - \binom{j}{m} \binom{n+m}{m} \right] / \binom{j}{m} \binom{j+m}{m} H_{2j}^{(v)}(x). \end{aligned}$$

Now for negative variance  $v$ , we know (Finite Operator Calculus) that  $H_{2j}^{(v)}(x)$  is nonnegative, and since the above coefficients are nonnegative, we obtain

$$v^{2n}[H_n^{(v)}(x)]^2 - v^{n+m}H_{n-m}^{(v)}(x) H_{n+m}^{(v)}(x) \geq 0.$$

For  $m$  even, we obtain a Turán-type inequality.

- We give now a duplication formula for Hermite polynomials. That is, we determine the connection constants  $c_{n,k}$  in

$$H_n^{(v)}(ax) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} H_k^{(w)}(x).$$

Since  $H_n^{(w)}(x)$  is the Sheffer sequence for the pair  $(e^{wA^2/2}, A)$  and  $H_n^{(v)}(ax)$  is Sheffer for the pair  $(e^{va^{-2}A^2/2}, a^{-1}A)$ , we have by Corollary 2 to Proposition 9.5 that  $t_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} x^k$  is Sheffer for the pair  $(e^{(va^{-2}-w)A^2/2}, a^{-1}A)$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} t_n(x) &= a^n e^{(w-va^{-2})D^2/2} x^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n a^n \frac{(w-va^{-2})^k}{2^k} (n)_{2k} x^{n-2k}. \end{aligned}$$

We next determine the connection constants  $c_{n,k}$  connecting the Hermite polynomials to the Bernoulli polynomials:

$$H_n^{(v)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} B_k^{(x)}(x).$$

Since  $H_n^{(v)}(x)$  is Sheffer for the pair  $(e^{vA^2/2}, A)$  and  $B_n^{(x)}(x)$  is Sheffer for the pair

$((e^A - \epsilon)/A)^\alpha, A$ , the sequence  $t_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} x^k$  is Sheffer for the pair  $((e^A - \epsilon)/A)^{-\alpha} e^{vA^2/2}, A$  and thus

$$t_n(x) = e^{-vD^2/2} \left( \frac{e^D - I}{D} \right)^\alpha x^n.$$

The constants  $c_{n,k}$  are then determined by a routine Taylor's expansion.

*Laguerre Polynomials*

We have seen that the basic Laguerre polynomials arise in computing the connection constants between  $(x)_n$  and  $\langle x \rangle_n$ . We now consider the more general problem of computing the connection constants between  $E^{-\alpha-1}(x)_n$  and  $\langle x \rangle_n$ , for  $\alpha$  a real number. More explicitly, we determine the constants  $c_{n,k}$  in

$$(x - \alpha - 1)(x - \alpha - 2) \cdots (x - \alpha - n) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} x^k (x + 1) \cdots (x + n - 1).$$

The sequence  $E^{-\alpha-1}(x)_n$  is Sheffer for the pair  $(e^{(\alpha+1)A}, e^A - \epsilon)$  and the sequence  $\langle x \rangle_n$  is Sheffer for the pair  $(\epsilon, \epsilon - e^{-A})$ . Thus Corollary 2 to Proposition 9.5 tells us that  $t_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} x^k$  is Sheffer for the pair  $((\epsilon - A)^{-\alpha-1}, A/(\epsilon - A))$ . Thus

$$t_n(x) = (I - D)^{\alpha+1} L_n(-x).$$

The Laguerre polynomials of order  $\alpha$  are

$$L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = (I - D)^{\alpha+1} L_n(x).$$

The ubiquitous presence of these polynomials can be traced to the fact that they give this important set of connection constants. The reader is referred to "Finite Operator Calculus" for the elementary properties of the Laguerre polynomials. We cite only

$$L_n^{(\alpha+\beta+1)}(x+y) = \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{n}{k} L_k^{(\alpha)}(x) L_{n-k}^{(\beta)}(y) \quad (*)$$

and the formula due to Kahaner, Odlyzko, and Rota:

$$L_n^{(\alpha_1)}(\mathbf{L}^{(\alpha_2)}(\mathbf{L}^{(\alpha_3)}(\dots \mathbf{L}^{(\alpha_k)}(x) \dots))) = \begin{cases} L_n^{(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 - \dots + \alpha_k)}(x), & k \text{ odd,} \\ M_n^{(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 + \alpha_3 - \dots + \alpha_k)}(x), & k \text{ even,} \end{cases} \quad (**)$$

where  $M_n^{(\lambda)}(x) = (I - D)^{-\lambda} x^n$ .

Equation (\*) gives the connection constants between Laguerre polynomials of different orders. Equation (\*\*), for  $k = 2$ , gives  $L_n^{(\alpha_1)}(\mathbf{L}^{(\alpha_2)}(x)) = (I - D)^{\alpha_2 - \alpha_1} x^n = (-1)^n L_n^{(\alpha_2 - \alpha_1 - n)}(x)$ . For  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \alpha$ , we obtain  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(\mathbf{L}^{(\alpha)}(x)) = x^n$  showing that all the Laguerre polynomials are self-reciprocal.



Various representations of the Laguerre polynomials of Rodrigues type follow from our methods. As an example, we prove Carlitz's beautiful:

$$L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) = \langle XD - X + \alpha + 1 \rangle_n 1.$$

This formula is a consequence of Theorem 14. In the notation of the theorem, we have  $(Q')^{-1} = -(D - I)^2$ , whence the corresponding shift operator is  $\theta = -X(D - I)^2$ . Similarly,  $P = (I - Q)^{\alpha+1}$ , so that  $P\theta_Q P^{-1} = (\alpha + 1)(I - D)$ . Thus



$$\begin{aligned} L_n^{(\alpha)}(x) &= (-(\alpha + 1)(D - I) - X(D - I)^2)L_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) \\ &= (XD - X + \alpha + 1)(I - D)L_{n-1}^{(\alpha)}(x) \\ &= (XD - X + \alpha + 1)L_{n-1}^{(\alpha+1)}(x) \\ &= \dots = \langle XD - X + \alpha + 1 \rangle_n 1. \end{aligned}$$

More generally, we have proved

$$L_{m+n}^{(\alpha)}(x) = \langle XD - X + \alpha + 1 \rangle_n L_m^{(\alpha+m)}(x).$$

We derive the Erdelyi duplication formula for Laguerre polynomials:

$$L_n^{(\alpha)}(ax) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} L_k^{(\alpha)}(x).$$

Since  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is Sheffer for the pair  $((\epsilon - A)^{-\alpha-1}, A/(A - \epsilon))$  and  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(ax)$  is Sheffer for the pair  $((\epsilon - a^{-1}A)^{-\alpha-1}, A/(A - a))$  the sequence  $t_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_{n,k} x^k$  is Sheffer for the pair  $(a^{\alpha+1}(a + (1 - a)A)^{-\alpha-1}, A/(a + (1 - a)A))$ . By the Transfer Formula,

$$\begin{aligned} t_n(x) &= a^{-\alpha}(a + (1 - a)D)^{\alpha+n} x^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{\alpha + n}{n - k} a^k (1 - a)^{n-k} (n)_{n-k} x^k. \end{aligned}$$

*Factor Hermite Sequences*

The factor Hermite sequence of variance  $v$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(e^{-vD^2/2}, D)$ . Thus

$$H_{-n}^{(v)}(x) = e^{-vD^2/2} x^{-n}.$$

We have

$$H_{-n}^{(v)}(x + y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} y^k H_{-n-k}^{(v)}(x).$$

Corollary 3 to Theorem 17 gives

$$\begin{aligned} H_{-n}^{(v)}(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{\langle e^{-vA^2/2} n A^{n-1} | x^{n+k-1} \rangle}{n!} x^{-n-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(-\frac{v}{2}\right)^k (-n)_{2k} x^{-n-2k}. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 19 easily establishes the umbral composition

$$H_{-n}^{(v)}(\mathbf{H}_{-}^{(w)}(x)) = H_{-n}^{(v+w)}(x).$$

The Cigler transform for  $H_{-n}^{(v)}(x)$  gives

$$\sum_{k \geq 1} H_{-k}^{(v)}(x) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-vt^2/2 - (s-x)t} dt.$$

We establish the duplication formula for factor Hermite sequences

$$H_{-n}^{(v)}(ax) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} H_{-k}^{(w)}(x).$$

It is not hard to see that if  $f_{-n}(x)$  is the  $(f(D), g(D))$ -factor sequence, then  $f_{-n}(ax)$  is the  $(f(a^{-1}D), g(a^{-1}D))$ -factor sequence. Thus since  $H_{-n}^{(v)}(ax)$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(e^{-va^{-2}D^2/2}, D)$  and  $H_{-n}^{(w)}(x)$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(e^{-wD^2/2}, D)$ , the sequence  $r_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} x^{-k}$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(e^{(w-va^{-2})D^2/2}, a^{-1}D)$  and thus

$$\begin{aligned} r_{-n}(x) &= a^{-n} e^{(w-va^{-2})D^2/2} x^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^{-n} \frac{(zv - va^{-2})^k}{2^k} (-n)_{2k} x^{-n-2k}. \end{aligned}$$

**Factor Laguerre Sequences**

The *factor Laguerre sequence* of order  $\alpha$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $((I - D)^{\alpha+1}, D|(D - I))$ . Thus, by analogy with  $L_n^{(\alpha)}(x)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(x) &= (I - D)^{\alpha+1} L_{-n}(x) \\ &= (-1)^n (I - D)^{\alpha-n} x^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha - n}{n - k} (-1)^k (-n)_{n-k} x^{-k}. \end{aligned}$$

We have

$$L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(x + y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} L_k(y) L_{-n-k}^{(\alpha)}(x),$$

and applying the operator  $(I - D)^{\beta+1} = \sigma(\epsilon - A)^{\beta+1}$  we obtain the composition law

$$L_{-n}^{(\alpha+\beta+1)}(x + y) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} L_k^{(\beta)}(y) L_{-n-k}^{(\alpha)}(x).$$

Theorem 19 implies

$$\begin{aligned} L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(\mathbf{L}_-^{(\beta)}(x)) &= (I - D)^{\alpha-\beta} x^{-n} \\ &= (-1)^n L_{-n}^{(\alpha-\beta+n)}(x). \end{aligned}$$

For  $\alpha = \beta$ , we obtain the identity

$$L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(\mathbf{L}_-^{(\alpha)}(x)) = x^{-n},$$

showing that the factor Laguerre sequence  $L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is self-reciprocal. Explicitly we have

$$x^{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha - n}{n - k} (-1)^k (-n)_{n-k} L_{-k}^{(\alpha)}(x).$$

The Cigler transform for the sequence  $L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(x)$  gives

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} L_{-k}^{(\alpha)}(x) s^{k-1} = \int_{-\infty}^0 (1 - t)^{-\alpha-1} e^{-st+\sigma t/(t-1)} dt.$$

We determine the connection constants  $c_{-n,k}$  in

$$\frac{1}{(x - \alpha)(x - \alpha + 1) \cdots (x - \alpha - 1 + n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k c_{-n,k}}{(x - 1)(x - 2) \cdots (x - k)}.$$

Just as before,  $E^{-\alpha-1}(x)_{-n}$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(e^{-(\alpha+1)D}, e^D - I)$  and  $\langle x \rangle_n$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(I, I - e^{-D})$ . Thus Corollary 1 to Theorem 19 implies that  $r_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{n,k} x^{-k}$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $((I - D)^{\alpha+1}, D/(I - D))$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} r_{-n}(x) &= L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(-x) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha - n}{n - k} (-n)_{n-k} x^{-k}, \end{aligned}$$

as expected.

Finally, we derive the duplication formula for factor Laguerre sequences. Namely, we determine the constants  $c_{-n,k}$  in

$$L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(ax) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} L_{-k}^{(\alpha)}(x).$$

Since  $L_{-n}^{(\alpha)}(x)$  is the  $((I - D)^{\alpha+1}, D/(D - I))$ -factor sequence, Corollary 1 to Theorem 19 implies that  $r_{-n}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} c_{-n,k} x^{-k}$  is the factor sequence for the pair  $(a^{-\alpha-1}(a + (1 - a)D)^{\alpha+1}, D/(a + (1 - a)D))$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} r_{-n}(x) &= a^{-\alpha}(a + (1 - a)D)^{\alpha-n} x^{-n} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha - n}{n - k} a^{-k} (1 - a)^{n-k} (-n)_{n-k} x^{-k}. \end{aligned}$$

#### 14. APPLICATIONS TO COMBINATORICS

We define a *store*  $\sigma$  as a set, in general infinite, together with a map  $d$  which assigns to every element of  $\sigma$  a positive integer, called its *degree*. The subset of  $\sigma$  consisting of all elements of a given degree is assumed to be finite. In practice, the elements of  $\sigma$  are sets endowed with some structure, and the problem is to count  $\sigma$ ; that is, to determine the number  $a_n$  of elements of  $\sigma$  of degree  $n$ . We call  $a_n$  the *counting sequence* of  $\sigma$ , and we assume that  $a_1 > 0$ .

We define the *generating functional* of  $\sigma$  as the delta functional  $L$  satisfying

$$\langle L | x^n \rangle = a_n.$$

The counting sequence is thus the sequence of coefficients of the indicator of  $L$ .

The *partitional* of a store  $\sigma$  (a translation of Foata's "compose partitionnel") is a second store *part* ( $\sigma$ ) defined as follows. An element  $p$  of part ( $\sigma$ ) is a set (not a sequence) of pairs  $\{(B_1, s_1), \dots, (B_k, s_k)\}$ , where

- (i) the  $B_i$  are the blocks of a partition of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , for some  $n$  (hence  $B_i$  is nonempty);
- (ii) the  $s_i$  are elements of the store  $\sigma$ ;
- (iii) the degree of  $s_i$  equals the number of elements in  $B_i$ .

To every such element  $p$ , called a *part* of part ( $\sigma$ ), we associate two integers; the *degree*  $d(p)$  of  $p$  is the sum of the degrees of  $s_i$  and the *part number* of  $p$  is the number of blocks.

The partitional part ( $\sigma$ ) is obtained by letting  $n$  range over all positive integers. We let  $b_{n,k}$  be the number of elements of part ( $\sigma$ ) of degree  $n$  and part number  $k$ , and call it the *counting sequence* of the partitional. We set  $b_{0,0} = 1$ . Since  $a_1 > 0$ , we have  $b_{n,n} > 0$  for all  $n$ .

The following proposition motivates this definition.

**PROPOSITION 14.1.** *Let  $b_{n,k}$  be the counting sequence of the partitional part ( $\sigma$ ) of a store  $\sigma$  having generating functional  $L$ , for the degree  $n$  and the part number  $k$ . Then*

$$b_{n,k} = \langle L^k | x^n \rangle / k!$$

*Proof.* Evidently the counting sequence satisfies the identity

$$\binom{i+j}{i} b_{n,i+j} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} b_{k,i} b_{n-k,j}.$$

Therefore, by Proposition 4.3, there exists a delta functional  $M$  such that

$$b_{n,k} = \langle M^k | x^n \rangle / k!.$$

But it is immediate from the definition of partitional that  $b_{n,1} = a_n$ . Thus  $M = L$ . Q.E.D.

We remark that  $\sum_{k=0}^n b_{n,k} x^k$  is the conjugate sequence for the delta functional  $L$ .

**COROLLARY 1.** *Let  $c_n = \sum_{k \geq 0} b_{n,k}$  be the number of elements of degree  $n$  in part  $(\sigma)$ . Then*

$$c_n = \langle e^L | x^n \rangle.$$

**COROLLARY 2 (Foata).** *The exponential generating function of  $c_n$  is the indicator of the exponential of the generating functional of  $\sigma$ .*

We illustrate these notions with some elementary examples.

**EXAMPLE 1.** Find the number of partitions of an  $n$ -set.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store having exactly one element of each degree. Then part  $(\sigma)$  is the set of all partitions of finite sets. An element of part  $(\sigma)$  of degree  $n$  and part number  $k$  is a partition of an  $n$ -set into  $k$  blocks. Now since  $\langle L | x^n \rangle = 1$  for all  $n > 0$ , we conclude that  $L = e^A - \epsilon = \epsilon_1 - \epsilon$ , the forward difference functional. Thus Proposition 14.1 implies that the number  $b_{n,k}$  of partitions of an  $n$ -set into  $k$  blocks is  $S(n, k)$ , the Stirling numbers of the second kind, defined by

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

Corollary 1 tells us that the Bell numbers  $B_n$  of partitions of an  $n$ -set satisfy

$$B_n = \langle e^L | x^n \rangle,$$

where  $L = e^A - \epsilon$ . Corollary 2 gives the exponential generating function for the Bell numbers as  $\exp(e^t - 1)$ .

**EXAMPLE 2.** Let  $S$  be an  $n$ -set. Then a  $k$ -partition of  $S$  with selected subsets is a partition of  $S$  into  $k$  blocks  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  together with a nonempty subset  $C_i$  of each block  $B_i$ .

**PROBLEM.** Count the number of partitions of an  $n$ -set with selected subsets.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store consisting of all pairs  $B_i, C_i$  of nonempty sets, such that  $B_i \supseteq C_i$ . Then  $\text{part}(\sigma)$  is the set of all partitions of finite sets with selected subsets. Since  $\langle L | x^n \rangle = 2^n - 1$ , we see that

$$L = \sum_{k \geq 1} (2^k - 1) A^k / k! = e^A (e^A - 1),$$

the difference-Abel functional. Applying Proposition 14.1, we find that the number  $b_{n,k}$  of  $k$ -partitions of an  $n$ -set with selected subsets is the  $k$ th coefficient of the  $n$ th conjugate Gould polynomial:

$$b_{n,k} = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} k^i S(n-i, k).$$

By Corollary 1, the number  $P_n$  of partitions with selected subsets is

$$P_n = \langle e^L | x^n \rangle,$$

where  $L = e^A (e^A - 1)$ .

**EXAMPLE 3.** Find the number of rooted, labeled trees on  $n$  vertices, where each vertex is of degree 1, except the root.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store whose elements of degree  $n$  are rooted, labeled trees on  $n$  vertices in which each vertex has degree one, except the root. Then  $\text{part}(\sigma)$  consists of all forests with the specified degree requirements. Since  $\langle L | x^n \rangle = n$ , we conclude that  $L = Ae^A$ , the Abel functional. Proposition 14.1 implies that the number of forests on  $n$  vertices with  $k$  components satisfying the above degree requirements is

$$b_{n,k} = \binom{n}{k} k^{n-k}.$$

Corollary 2 implies that the exponential generating function for the number  $c_n$  of forests on  $n$  vertices with the above degree requirements is  $\exp(te^t)$ .

**EXAMPLE 4.** Find the number of permutations of an  $n$ -set all of whose cycles have odd cardinality.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store whose elements of degree  $2n+1$  are all cyclic permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, 2n+1\}$ , and having no elements of even degree. Then  $\text{part}(\sigma)$  is the set of permutations of finite sets whose cycles have odd cardinality, the elements of degree  $2n+1$  and part number  $k$  being

permutations of the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, 2n + 1\}$  with  $k$  cycles, all of odd cardinality. Thus  $\langle L \mid x^{2n+1} \rangle = (2n)!$  and  $\langle L \mid x^{2n} \rangle = 0$ . Hence

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(2k)!}{(2k + 1)!} A^{2k+1} = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{1}{2k + 1} A^{2k+1} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log((\epsilon + A)/(\epsilon - A)) = \text{arc tanh } A \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $T_n(x)$  be the conjugate polynomials for  $L$ . The recurrence

$$T_{n+1}(x) = xT_n(x) + n(n - 1) T_{n-1}(x)$$

is established by applying  $\tilde{L}^k$  (where  $\tilde{L} = \text{tanh } A$ ) to both sides and using the fact that  $\langle \tilde{L}^k \mid T_n(x) \rangle = n! \delta_{n,k}$  and

$$\langle \tilde{L}^k \mid xT_n(x) \rangle = \langle \partial_A(\tilde{L}^k) \mid T_n(x) \rangle = \langle k\tilde{L}^{k-1}(\epsilon - \tilde{L}^2) \mid T_n(x) \rangle.$$

Putting  $x = 1$  in the above recurrence, we have

$$T_{n+1}(1) = T_n(1) + n(n - 1) T_{n-1}(1)$$

so that the required number is

$$T_n(1) = 1^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^2 \cdots (2n - 1)^2.$$

EXAMPLE 5 (Cayley). Find all rooted, labeled trees with  $n$  vertices.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store whose elements of degree  $n$  are all rooted labeled trees on  $n$  vertices. Then part  $(\sigma)$  is the set of forests. Letting  $b_{n,k}$  be the number of elements of part  $(\sigma)$  of degree  $n$  and part number  $k$ , we have the obvious recursion, obtained by removing the root of a tree and counting the resulting forest:

$$b_{n,1} = n \sum_k b_{n-1,k}.$$

In terms of the generating functional, this becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \langle L \mid x^n \rangle &= n \sum_k \frac{\langle L^k \mid x^{n-1} \rangle}{k!} = \langle e^L \mid Dx^n \rangle \\ &= \langle Ae^L \mid x^n \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

and thus  $L = Ae^L$ . We seek the conjugate sequence for  $L$ . But  $A = Le^{-L} = f(L)$  and so  $L = f^{-1}(A)$  and  $\tilde{L} = f(A) = Ae^{-A}$ . Thus we see that  $\tilde{L}$  is the Abel functional and

$$\sum_k b_{n,k} x^k = x(x + n)^{n-1}.$$

Therefore,

$$b_{n,k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} n^{n-k},$$

and the numbers of rooted labeled trees on  $n$  vertices is  $n^{n-1}$ .

Recall that a binary tree is a tree in which each vertex has degree one or three, except the root, which has degree 2.

**EXAMPLE 6.** Find all rooted, labeled binary trees with  $n$  vertices.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store whose elements of degree  $n$  are binary trees with  $n$  vertices. Then  $\text{part}(\sigma)$  is the set of forests of such trees. We have as in Example 3:

$$\langle L \mid x^n \rangle = n \langle L^2 \mid x^{n-1} \rangle + \langle A \mid x^n \rangle,$$

so  $L = A(L^2 + 2\epsilon)/2$  and  $\tilde{L} = 2A/(A^2 + 2\epsilon)$ . By the Transfer Formula,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_k b_{n,k} x^k &= x 2^{-n} (D^2 + 2)^n x^{n-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} 2^{-k} (n-1)_{2k} x^{n-2k}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$b_{n,k} = \begin{cases} 0, & n+k \text{ odd.} \\ \binom{n}{(n-k)/2} (n-1)_{n-k} 2^{(k-n)/2}, & n+k \text{ even.} \end{cases}$$

A linearly ordered tree is one in which all but two vertices are of degree 2.

**EXAMPLE 7.** Find all rooted, labeled forests on  $n$  vertices in which each tree is linearly ordered.

*Solution.* Let  $\sigma$  be the store in which the elements of degree  $n$  are rooted, labeled linearly ordered trees on  $n$  vertices. As in Example 3, we see by removing the root that

$$\langle L \mid x^n \rangle = n \langle L \mid x^{n-1} \rangle + \langle A \mid x^n \rangle.$$

Thus  $L = LA + A$ , and  $\tilde{L} = A/(A + \epsilon)$ . By the Transfer Formula,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_k b_{n,k} x^k &= x(D + I)^n x^{n-1} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (n-1)_{k-1} x^k \\ &= L_n(-x), \end{aligned}$$

where  $L_n(x)$  are the Laguerre polynomials.



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