

## Hsu-Riordan Array/Partial Monoid \*

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**Abstract:** This paper gives a unified approach to Hsu's two classes of extended GSN pairs in the setting of Hsu-Riordan partial monoid which is a generalization of Shapiro's Riordan group, and moreover Hsu-Wang transfer theorem, Brown-Sprugnoli transfer formula and generalized Brown transfer lemma which display some transfer methods of different kinds of Hsu-Riordan arrays and identities respectively.

**Key words:** Riordan array/Hsu-Riordan array; partial monoid; generating function; Stirling numbers; transfer formula; identity.

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### 1. Hsu-Riordan partial monoid

In this paper, we assume that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}$ , so that all what follows are formalities.

**Definition 1.1** For four complex functions  $p(n, t)$ ,  $q(n, t)$ ,  $d(t)$ , and  $h(t)$ , and an infinite matrix  $A = (A(n, k))$ , if

$$d(t)p(k, h(t)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A(n, k)q(n, t) \quad (1.1)$$

holds formally for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , then we call  $A$  a Hsu-Riordan array, or HR-array in short, denoted by  $(p(n, t), q(n, t); d(t), h(t))$ , or  $(p, q; d, h)$  for short, viz.,  $(p, q; d, h) := (A(n, k))$ .

**Remark** The original idea of (1.1) can be found in Hsu's masterpiece "Theory and application of generalized Stirling number pairs". This is the reason why we refer to the above matrix  $(A(n, k)) =: (p, q; d, h)$  as Hsu-Riordan array.

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If  $f(t) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k p(k, t)$ , since

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A(n, k) f_k \right) q(n, t) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} f_k d(t) p(k, h(t)) = d(t) f(h(t)) \quad (\text{by (1.1)}), \quad (1.2)$$

we obtain

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A(n, k) f_k = [q(n, t)] d(t) f(h(t)), \quad (1.3)$$

where  $[q(n, t)]g(t)$  denotes  $g_n$  with  $g(t) = \sum_n g_n q(n, t)$ . We call (1.2) Bruno-type formula which is a pattern of identity.

If we regard  $\sum_k f_k p(k, t)$  as the generating function of  $\{f_k\}_k$  with respect to  $\{p(k, t)\}_k$ , then (1.2) tells us that the generating function of the product of  $A$  and column vector  $(f_0, f_1, \dots)^T$  with respect to  $\{q(n, t)\}_n$  is  $d(t)f(h(t))$ . Denote again this generating function by  $(p, q; d, h) * [f|p]$  in which  $[f|p]$  denotes  $f$  with  $f(t) = \sum_k f_k p(k, t)$ . Then

$$(p, q; d, h) * [f|p] = [df(h)|q]. \quad (1.4)$$

For two HR-arrays  $(p, q; d, h)$  and  $(q, r; f, g)$ , and any sequence  $\{F_k\}_k$ , since

$$(q, r; f, g)(p, q; d, h) * [F|p] = (q, r; f, g) * [dF(h)|q] = [fd(g)F(h(g))|r],$$

we have by (1.4) that  $(q, r; f, g)(p, q; d, h) = (p, r; fd(g), h(g))$ . If we define

$$(q, r)(p, q) := (p, r), \quad (1.5)$$

$$(f, g)(d, h) := (fd(g), h(g)), \quad (1.6)$$

then

$$(q, r; f, g)(p, q; d, h) = ((q, r)(p, q); (f, g)(d, h)). \quad (1.7)$$

**Definition 1.2** A partial monoid is a triple  $(M, p, 1)$  in which  $M$  is a non-vacuous set,  $p$  is an associative partial binary product in  $M$  (viz., we admit that  $p(a, b)$  is meaningless for some  $a, b \in M$ ), and  $1$  is an element of  $M$  such that  $p(1, a) = a = p(a, 1)$  for all  $a \in M$ .

Denote

$$H := \{(p, q; d, h) | (p, q; d, h) \text{ is a HR-array}\},$$

$$M := \{(p, q) | \exists (d, h) \text{ s.t. } (p, q; d, h) \text{ is a HR-array}\},$$

$$G := \{(d, h) | \exists (p, q) \text{ s.t. } (p, q; d, h) \text{ is a HR-array}\}.$$

Obviously,  $G$  is a monoid (for monoid, see [12]) with (1.6) and the identity element  $(1, t)$ ,  $M$  is a partial monoid with (1.5) and the identity element  $(p, p)$  for all  $p$  (more precisely, the quotient set  $M / \sim$  becomes a partial monoid with  $(q, r) \overline{(p, q)} = \overline{(p, r)}$  and the identity element  $\overline{(p, p)}$ , where  $\overline{(p, p)} = \{(q, q) | \text{for any } q\}$ ,  $\overline{(p, q)} = \{(p, q)\}$ , if  $p \neq q$ ,) and  $H$  is a partial monoid with (1.7) and the identity element  $(p, p; 1, t)$ , unit matrix. We refer to  $H$  as a Hsu-Riordan partial monoid, and regard roughly  $H$  as the direct product of  $M$  and  $G$  in the natural way, i.e.,

$$H = M \otimes G. \quad (1.8)$$

Denote

$$H_p := \{(p, p; d, h) | (p, p; d, h) \in H\},$$

$$H_p^g := \{(p, p; d, h) | (p, p; d, h) \in H \text{ and } d, h \text{ are fps with } o(d) = 0, o(h) = 1\},$$

where “fps” represents “formal power series” and

$$o(f(t)) := \min\{k | (\frac{f(t)}{t^k})_{t=0} \neq 0, k = 0, 1, 2, \dots\}.$$

It is easy to understand that the following holds.

**Theorem 1.3**  $H_p$  is a monoid, and  $H_p^g$  is an isomorphic image of Riordan group<sup>[14--16]</sup>.

When  $p(n, t)$  is a fps with  $o(p(n, t)) = n$ ,  $H_p^g$  is just a relative Riordan group, and accordingly, the element of  $H_p^g$  is a relative Riordan array in [18].

**Definition 1.4** If two HR-arrays  $(A(n, k)) = (p, q; d, h)$  and  $(B(n, k)) = (p_1, q_1; d_1, h_1)$  are inverses of each other, then we call  $\langle A(n, k), B(n, k) \rangle$  a Hsu-Stirling number pair, or HSN pair for short.

For HSN pair  $\langle A(n, k), B(n, k) \rangle$ , if  $d$  and  $h$  are fps, then

$$(B(n, k)) = (q, p; d^{-1}(\bar{h}), \bar{h}),$$

where  $\bar{h}$  represents the compositional inverse of  $h$ . If, furthermore,  $\{p(n, t)\}_n$  and  $\{q(n, t)\}_n$  are two normal basic sets of polynomials ( see [7]), and  $d(t) = 1$ , then the HSN pair is just Hsu's first class of extended GSN pair in [7].

If  $(p, p; d, h) \in H_p^g$ , then HSN pair  $\langle A(n, k), B(n, k) \rangle$  becomes a HRSN pair [18]; because Hsu's second class of extended GSN pair in [7] is also a HRSN pair, so Hsu's second class of extended GSN pair is a HSN pair.

Summarizing above discussion, we obtain the conclusion that the Hsu-Riordan partial monoid is a proper setting for unifying Hsu's two classes of extended GSN pairs and some related results such as [6-9], which illustrates the principle of the intrinsic unity of one's thoughts.

## 2. Hsu-Wang transfer theorem

For given two fps  $d(t)$  and  $h(t)$ , define

$$d(t)h(t)^m =: \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_{i,m} t^i,$$

$$h(t)^m =: \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} g_{i,m} t^i,$$

$$\mu_{(\alpha)}(p^i) := \lambda^i f_{i,\alpha(p)}, \gamma_{(\beta)}(p^i) := \lambda^i g_{i,\beta(p)},$$

$$\mu_{(\alpha)}(n) := \prod_{(*)} \mu_{(\alpha)}(p^i), \gamma_{(\beta)}(n) := \prod_{(*)} \gamma_{(\beta)}(p^i),$$

where  $(*)$  represents the  $(p^i | n \text{ and } p^{i+1} \nmid n)$ ,  $p$  is a prime,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are arithmetic functions. Then we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.1**  $(\mu_{(\alpha)} * \gamma_{(\beta)})(n) = \mu_{(\alpha+\beta)}(n)$ , where  $\mu_{(\alpha)} * \gamma_{(\beta)}$  represents the Dirichlet product (see [13]).

**Proof** For any prime  $p$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu_{(\alpha)} * \gamma_{(\beta)})(p^e) &= \sum_{d|p^e} \mu_{(\alpha)}(d) \gamma_{(\beta)}\left(\frac{p^e}{d}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^e \mu_{(\alpha)}(p^i) \gamma_{(\beta)}(p^{e-i}) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^e \lambda^i f_{i,\alpha(p)} \lambda^{e-i} g_{e-i,\beta(p)} = \lambda^e \sum_{i=0}^e f_{i,\alpha(p)} g_{e-i,\beta(p)} \\ &= \lambda^e f_{e,(\alpha+\beta)(p)} = \mu_{(\alpha+\beta)}(p^e). \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see from the definition of  $\mu_{(\alpha)}$  and  $\gamma_{(\beta)}$  that they are multiplicative functions. Therefore their Dirichlet product  $\mu_{(\alpha)} * \gamma_{(\beta)}$  is also multiplicative, and hence

$$(\mu_{(\alpha)} * \gamma_{(\beta)})(n) = \mu_{(\alpha+\beta)}(n)$$

for any natural number  $n$ . This completes the proof.

If we define

$$f(\alpha) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\mu_{(\alpha)}(n)}{n^s}, \quad g(\beta) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\gamma_{(\beta)}(n)}{n^s},$$

then Theorem 2.1 tells us that  $f(\alpha)g(\beta) = f(\alpha+\beta)$ , and so  $f(n) = f(1)g(1)^{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 1$ .  $(A(n, m)) = (\mu_{(m+1)}(n))$  is a HR-array with the row vector of the generating functions of the columns of  $(A(n, m))$  with respect to  $\{n^{-t}\}_n$

$$(f(1), f(1)g(1), f(1)g(1)^2, \dots).$$

Hence, Theorem 2.1 implies a general method for constructing new HR-array from the ordinary HR-arrays  $(f_{i,m})$  and  $(g_{i,m})$ .

When  $d(t) = 1$ ,  $h(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i t^i$ , we obtain

**Corollary 2.2** If define

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i t^i\right)^m &= \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_{i,m} t^i, \\ \mu_{(\alpha)}(p^i) &:= \lambda^i f_{i,\alpha(p)}, \end{aligned}$$

with  $f_0 = f_{0,0} = 1$ ,  $f_{i,0} = 0 (i \geq 1)$ , and moreover

$$\mu_{(\alpha)}(n) := \prod_{(*)} \mu_{(\alpha)}(p^i),$$

and

$$\mu_{(0)}(n) := \left[\frac{1}{n}\right] = \delta_{n,1},$$

where  $\alpha$  is an arithmetic function,  $(*)$  represents  $(p^i | n$  and  $p^{i+1} \nmid n)$ , and  $\delta_{n,1}$  denotes the Kronecker-delta, then  $(\mu_{(\alpha)} * \mu_{(\beta)})(n) = \mu_{(\alpha+\beta)}(n)$ .

**Corollary 2.3**  $F(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu_{(\alpha)}\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)G(d) \iff G(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu_{(-\alpha)}\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)F(d)$  with  $\mu_{(\alpha)}(n)$  defined in Corollary 2.2.

In particular, since  $f_k = \frac{1}{1+kz} \binom{1+kz}{k}$  in Corollary 2.2 implies

$$f_{k,m} = \frac{m}{m+kz} \binom{m+kz}{k}$$

on the basis of

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{a}{a+bk} \binom{a+bk}{k} \frac{c}{c+b(n-k)} \binom{c+b(n-k)}{n-k} = \frac{a+c}{a+c+bn} \binom{a+c+bn}{n} \quad (\text{see [5], [10]})$$

and

$$f(x)f(y) = f(x+y) \Rightarrow f(x) = f(1)^x,$$

we know by taking

$$f_k = \frac{1}{1+kz} \binom{1+kz}{k}$$

and  $\lambda = -1$  in Corollary 2.2 and 2.3, that the two corollaries become Theorems 2 and 3 in [10], respectively.

We refer to Theorem 2.1 as a Hsu-Wang transfer theorem to show the source of the theorem.

### 3. Generalized Brown transfer lemma

**Theorem 3.1** For given fps  $f(x)$  and  $h(x)$  with  $o(h(x)) = 0$ , define

$$f(x)h(x)^k =: \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_{n,k} \left(\frac{x}{h(x)}\right)^n.$$

Then for sequences  $\{\Phi_n\}_n$  and  $\{\Psi_n\}_n$ ,

$$\Psi_n = \sum_{k=0}^n C_{n-k,k} \Phi_k \implies \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Psi_n \left(\frac{x}{h(x)}\right)^n = f(x) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \Phi_n x^n.$$

If we take  $f(x) = (1+x)^\alpha$ ,  $h(x) = (1+x)^\beta$ , then

$$C_{n,k} = \frac{\alpha + k\beta}{\alpha + (k+n)\beta} \binom{\alpha + (k+n)\beta}{n}$$

by the well-known Lagrange inversion theorem (see [4]). For given sequence  $\{\lambda_k\}_k$ , let  $\Phi_k = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta k} \lambda_k$ ,  $r_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{\alpha+\beta n}{n-k} \lambda_k$ , then

$$\Psi_n = \sum_{k=0}^n C_{n-k,k} \Phi_k = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta n} r_n,$$

and, Theorem 3.1 becomes

**Corollary 3.2**

$$r_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{\alpha + \beta n}{n-k} \lambda_k \Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta n} r_n \left[ \frac{x}{(1+x)^\beta} \right]^n = (1+x)^\alpha \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta n} \lambda_n x^n.$$

This is just the (3) of the lemma in [1]. We call Theorem 3.1 the generalized Brown transfer lemma.

**4. Brown-Sprugnoli transfer formula**

If  $p, q, d, h$  are fps, then we call  $(p, q; d, h)$  a fps-type HR-array. In this section, we consider only the case in which  $o(p(n, t)) = o(q(n, t)) = n, o(d) = 0, o(h) = 1$ , and denote  $p(n, t)$  and  $q(n, t)$  by  $p_n(t)$  and  $q_n(t)$  respectively.

Let

$$d(t)p_k(h(t)) = \sum_{n \geq k} A(n, k)q_n(t),$$

$$d(t)P_k(h(t)) = \sum_{n \geq k} B(n, k)Q_n(t),$$

and

$$(p(t)) = (P(t))N, \quad (4.1)$$

$$(q(t)) = (Q(t))M, \quad (4.2)$$

where  $(p(t))$  denotes the row vector  $(p_0(t), p_1(t), p_2(t), \dots)$ . Since

$$(d(t)p(h(t))) = (q(t))A, \quad (4.3)$$

$$(d(t)P(h(t))) = (Q(t))B, \quad (4.4)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} (d(t)p(h(t))) &= (d(t)P(h(t)))N \quad (\text{by (4.1)}) \\ &= (Q(t))BN \quad (\text{by (4.4)}); \end{aligned} \quad (4.5)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (d(t)p(h(t))) &= (q(t))A \quad (\text{by (4.3)}) \\ &= (Q(t))MA \quad (\text{by (4.2)}), \end{aligned} \quad (4.6)$$

and hence

$$BN = MA \quad (\text{by (4.5) and (4.6)}), \quad (4.7)$$

or

$$MAN^{-1} = B. \quad (4.8)$$

**Theorem 4.1** For given two HR-arrays  $A = (p, q; d, h)$  and  $B = (P, Q; d, h)$ , if  $(p) = (P)N$  and  $(q) = (Q)M$ , then  $MA = BN$  or  $MAN^{-1} = B$ .

Theorem 4.1 tells us a method of transforming a fps-type HR-array to another one.

If we take  $p = q$  and  $P_n(t) = Q_n(t) = t^n$ , then  $M = N$  and Theorem 4.1 becomes

**Corollary 4.2** If  $(p(t)) = (t)M$ , then

$$M(p, p; d, h)M^{-1} = (t, t; d, h).$$

In particular, if  $p_k(t) = \frac{t^k}{c_k}$ ,  $c_k \neq 0$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , then  $M = \text{diag}(c_0^{-1}, c_1^{-1}, c_2^{-1}, \dots)$ . If  $(p, p; d, h) = (h_{ij})$ , then

$$M(h_{ij})M^{-1} = \left(\frac{c_j}{c_i} h_{ij}\right) \quad (4.9)$$

is a Riordan array. This is an answer to Shapiro's problem in [14] of developing a Riordan array-type theory with respect to generating functions of the form  $A(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n x^n}{c_n}$  for various sequences  $c_n$ .

Specially, if we take  $c_k = k!$ , then  $(\frac{t^j}{i!} h_{ij})$  is a Riordan array, where,  $h_{ij}$  satisfies

$$d(t) \frac{h(t)^j}{j!} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} h_{ij} \frac{t^i}{i!}.$$

For example,  $(S(n, k)) = (\frac{t^n}{n!}, \frac{t^n}{n!}; 1, e^t - 1)$ , so

$$\left(\frac{k!}{n!} S(n, k)\right) = (t^n, t^n; 1, e^t - 1). \quad (4.10)$$

where  $S(n, k)$  represents the Stirling numbers of the second kind (see [4]). Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{1 \leq k \leq n} S(n, k) y^k &= \sum_{0 \leq k \leq n} S(n, k) \frac{k!}{n!} \frac{n!}{k!} y^k = n! [t^n] e^{y(e^t - 1)} \\ &= e^{-y} \left[\frac{t^n}{n!}\right] e^{ye^t} = e^{-y} \sum_{r \geq 0} \left[\frac{t^n}{n!}\right] \frac{y^r e^{rt}}{r!} \\ &= e^{-y} \sum_{r \geq 1} \frac{r^n}{r!} y^r. \end{aligned}$$

This is just the result (4.2.16), a Dobinski-type formula, in [17].

In view of the fact that J.W.Brown gave (4.9) in the setting of the connection sequences (see [2,3]) and R.Sprugnoli used (4.10) in [15], we call Theorem 4.1 Brown-Sprugnoli transfer formula.

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## Hsu-Riordan 阵 / partial monoid

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**摘 要:** 本文首先对 Shapiro 的 Riordan 群进行了推广, 给出了 Hsu-Riordan partial monoid 的概念, 然后在此框架内, 对徐利治先生的两类扩展型广义 Stirling 数偶进行了统一处理; 建立了 Hsu-Wang 转换定理, Brown-Sprugnoli 转换公式, 以及广义 Brown 转换引理 — 它揭示了一些不同类型的 Hsu-Riordan 阵之间转换的方法, 由此可产生大量的恒等式.

**关键词:** Riordan 阵 / 徐-Riordan 阵; 偏 monoid; 发生函数; stirling 数; 转换公式; 恒等式.