

AROUND THE NUMBER OF CHAINS IN PARTITIVE SETS^{*)**}

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0. Generalities

0:0. Among crucial and the most fruitful formations of sets is the one of the partitive set PS for any given set S ; also for a given cardinal (ordinal) number n one designs by Pn or $P(n)$ any partitive set PS such that $n = kS$ (= cardinal number of S). The set Pn is ordered by \subset (the relation \subset includes the case of = as well).

0:1. The question arises about the set $lPn [LP(n)]$ of all subchains [maximal subchains] of $(P(n), \subset)$; of course, $v \in lP(n)$ (v denotes the empty or vacuous set). The cases of n finite and n transfinite behave quite distinctly, in particular as concerns LPn ; as a matter of fact, one proves easily that $kIPu = n!$ for any $n \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$; on the other side, one knows that the assumption $LPn \neq v$ for every cardinal n is independent of the usual axioms of the theory of sets and is equivalent to the following proposition.

OP (Ordering principle) Every set is totally orderable.¹⁾

0:2. One has $kP\aleph_x = 2^{\aleph_x}$, $lP\aleph_x \subset P^2\aleph_x$ thus $kIP\aleph_x \leq \exp_2 \aleph_x$. Does here \leq mean = ?

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** Partly presented in: 1) Zagreb 1954:03:17, O kombinacijama [On combinations] (v. Glasnik Mat. fiz. astr. 9:1 (Zagreb 1954) p. 73; 2) Mengentheoretische Kombinatorik (presented on 1963:02:12 at the Kongress der Mathematiker der DDR (Rostock 1968:02:12—17); 3) Matematički inštitut, Beograd (the 1976:11:05:5); 4) On a sequence of integers (1976:06:29:2 at the 5th Hungarian Combinatorial Colloquium (Kezletely 1976:06:28—07:03); 5) Kolloquium in Erlangen 1976:11:09:2 Einige Resultate aus der Kombinatorik und der Graphentheorie.

¹ *OP* is strongly weaker than the proposition.

W (Well-ordering principle): Every set is well-orderable.
 We proved that $W \Leftrightarrow OP \wedge MA$, where

MA Every ordered set contains a maximal antichain.

Let us observe that $W \Leftrightarrow MCE$ (Maximal Chain Extension Principle) $L(E, \leq) \neq v$ for every ordered set (E, \leq) (F. Hausdorff). Of course, $MA \Leftrightarrow MAE$ (Maximal Antichain Extension). For every ordered set (E, \leq) and every antichain $a \subset (E, \leq)$ there exists a maximal antichain A in (E, \leq) such that $a \subset A$.

Also: $MCE \Leftrightarrow$ For every ordered set (E, \leq) and every chain $l \subset (E, \leq)$ there is a maximal chain $L \subset (E, \leq)$ such that $l \subset L$.

0:2:1. Let us consider the following statements

$$(kl)_m \quad klPm = \exp_2 m \quad (:= 2^{2^m})$$

(kl) For every infinite cardinal n the statement $(kl)_m$ holds.

$$(K_1)_m \quad K_1 m = 2^m$$

(K₁) For every infinite cardinal m one has $K_1 m = \exp m$, where

$K_1 m = \sup \{kl, l \text{ running through systems of totally ordered sets such that } m = k_1 l := \inf_x kx, \text{ each } x \text{ being everywhere dense in } l \text{ in the sense that each open non empty interval of } l \text{ meets } x.$

As we proved elsewhere there is no restriction to assume that in the definition of $K_1 l$ one has $l \subset Pm$ (see. Kurepa 1957:1 Theorem 8:1).

0:2:2. Does $(K_1)_m \Rightarrow (kl)_m$ for a given infinite cardinal m ? Yes, if $K_1 m$ is reached i.e. if there is a chain $l \subset Pm$ such that $kl = \exp m$ and $k_1 l = m$.

0:2:3. Let us observe that $GCH \Rightarrow (K_1)$. But the proposition (K_1) could be considered also independently of the GCH . E. g. every K -tree of cardinality \aleph_1 and with $\exp \aleph_1$ branches guarantees $(K_1)_{\aleph_1}$.

0:3. In the present paper we restrict ourselves to $P(n)$ for $n \in N$. In § 2 we reprove a result of M. Popadić concerning $klPn$ for any natural number and establish some connexions between summation formula on combinations and iterated differences. For numbers $l(n, r)$ for a given n , we establish that they are increasing at beginning and decreasing at the end. We are not able to prove the assumption that the sequence $l(n, r)$ ($r = 0, 1, \dots$) consists of a strictly increasing initial segment and of the strictly decreasing remainder and that there are no equal members in the r^{th} row (we guess that in the table of numbers $l(n, r)$ for $r \neq 0$ all numbers are pairwise distinct).

For numbers $l(n, r)n!^{-1}$ ($r = n, n-1, \dots$) we prove that they are n -polynomials of degrees 1, 2, 3, ... Is it so for every r ?

In § 4 we formulate some problems on numbers $\Delta^r b^n$.

1. Differences of a function.

1:1. For a function $f(x)$ and $h \in R$ one puts $\Delta_h f(x) := f(x+h) - f(x)$, $\Delta_h^2 f(x) := \Delta_h f(x+h) - \Delta_h f(x)$, ..., $\Delta_h^n f(x) := \Delta_h \Delta_h^{n-1} f(x)$. One puts also $\Delta_h^0 f(x) := f(x)$. One writes $\Delta_1^n f(x) := \Delta^n f(x)$.

1:2. Theorem. Let $f(x)$ be a real-valued function defined in a set $\{a, a+h, a+2h, \dots\} \subset R$; then

$$(1:3) \quad \Delta_h^n f(a) = \sum_{\nu=0}^n (-1)^\nu \binom{n}{\nu} f(a + (n-\nu)h).$$

In particular, for any power b^m one has

$$(1:4) \quad \Delta_h^n b^m = \sum_{\nu=0}^n (-1)^\nu \binom{n}{\nu} (b + (n-\nu)h)^m.$$

If $f(x) = g(x)k(x)$, then

$$(1:5) \quad \Delta_h^n g(x)k(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \Delta_h^i g(a) \Delta_h^{n-i} k(x+ih);$$

in particular (case: $h=1, n+m+1, g(x)=x, k(x)=x^{s-1}$) one has

$$(1:6) \quad \Delta^{m+1} a^s = (m+1+a) \Delta^{m+1} a^{s-1} + (m+1) \Delta^m a^{s-1}.$$

The proof is carried out by an induction argument.

1:7. Theorem.

$$(1:8) \quad \sum_{e=0}^n \binom{n}{e} \Delta^r a^e = \Delta^r (a+1)^n.$$

Proof. Since $\Delta^r a^e = \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (r+a-i)^e$, one has

$$\begin{aligned} (1:8)_1 \quad &= \sum_{e=0}^n \binom{n}{e} \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (r+a-i)^e = \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} \sum_{e=0}^n \binom{n}{e} (r+a-i)^e = \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (1+(r+a-i))^n = \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (a+1+r-i)^n = \Delta^r (a+1)^n = (1:8)_2. \end{aligned}$$

1:9. Theorem. Let a be any real or complex number; for every positive integer n and every $r \in I_n := \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ one has

$$\Delta^n a^r = 0$$

$$\Delta^n a^n = n! \text{ In particular, } \Delta^{n+1} a^n = 0 \text{ for every natural number } n.$$

Proof. For $n=1$ one has $\Delta^1 1^1 = 2^1 - 1^1 = 1 = 1!$

$$\Delta^1 1^0 = 2^0 - 1^0 = 0.$$

Consequently, the statement is holding for $n=1$. Assume now that the statement holds for $n=m \geq 1$; we are going to prove that it is holding for $n=m+1, r=0, 1, \dots, m$, as well. First of all, the statement is obviously holding for $n=m+1, r=0$. Assume that it holds also for $n=m+1$ and $r=0, 1, 2, \dots, s-1$, where $s-1 < m$; we are going to prove the statement also for $n=m+1, r=s$. Now, we have the formula (1:6); by induction assumption, both summands (in 1:6) are 0; consequently, also $\Delta^{m+1} a^s = 0$. In particular, for $m+1=s+1$ the equality (1:6) yields $\Delta^{m+1} a^{m+1} = (m+1+m+1) \Delta^{m+1} a^m + (m+1) \Delta^m a^m =$ (the first summand is 0) $= (m+1) \Delta^m a^m = (m+1) m! = (m+1)!$.

1:10. Lemma. For every 2-un (n, r) of natural numbers one has

$$(1:11) \quad \sum_{e=0}^n \binom{n}{e} \Delta^r 1^e = \Delta^r 2^n.$$

Proof. Since $\Delta^r 1^e = \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (r+1-i)^e$, one has

$$(1:11)_1 \quad = \sum_{e=0}^n \binom{n}{e} \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (r+1-i)^e = \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} \sum_{e=0}^n \binom{n}{e} (r+1-i)^e = \\ = \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (1+(r+1-i))^n = \sum_{i=0}^r (-1)^i \binom{r}{i} (r+2-i)^n = \Delta^r 2^n = \\ = (1:11)_2.$$

1:12. Lemma. If (a, n) is any 2-un of natural numbers such that $a < n$, then for any integer $r \geq 0$

$$(1:13) \quad \sum_{a=r}^{n-1} \binom{n}{a} \Delta^r 1^a = \Delta^{r+1} 1^n; \text{ in particular for } r=0 \text{ one has}$$

$$(1:14) \quad \sum_{a=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{a} \Delta^0 1^a = \Delta 1^n, \text{ where } \Delta^0 1^a = 1^a.$$

Proof. At first, let us prove (1:13) for $r=0$, i. e. that (1:14) is holding. Now, $(1:14)_1 = \sum_{a=0}^n \binom{n}{a} 1^a - \binom{n}{n} \Delta^0 1^n = 2^n - 1^n = \Delta 1^n = (1:14)_2$.

If $r > 0$, then the summator in (1:13)₁ satisfies, symbolically,

$$\sum_{a=r}^{n-1} = \sum_{a=0}^n - \sum_{a=0}^{r-1} - \sum_{a=n}^n;$$

therefore,

$$(1:13)_1 \quad = \sum_{a=0}^n \binom{n}{a} \Delta^r 1^a - \sum_{a=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{a} \Delta^r 1^a - \binom{n}{n} \Delta^r 1^n; \text{ now, the first sum equals } \Delta^r 2^n \text{ (see 1:10 Lemma); the second sum equals 0 (v. 1:9 Lemma); therefore the last expression for (1:13)}_1 \text{ yields}$$

$$(1:13)_1 \quad = \Delta^r 2^n - \Delta^r 1^n = \Delta^r (2^n - 1^n) = \Delta^r \Delta 1^n = \Delta^{r+1} 1^n. \text{ Q. E. D.}$$

Remark. It is useful to compare the content of lemmas 1:10, 1:11; in either case, the left side is a scalar product; only the boundary of summations are distinct.

2. Set and number of paths of a graph.

2:1. For any graph \mathcal{G} let $p\mathcal{G}$ or $l\mathcal{G}$ denote the set of all non empty paths or chains in \mathcal{G} .

The empty set is considered as a path (chain) in every graph.

2:2. For any cardinal number n let $p_n \mathcal{G}$ denote the set of all paths of \mathcal{G} of cardinality n each. Consequently, $p \mathcal{G} = \bigcup_n p_n$ ($n=0, 1, 2, \dots$). In particular, $p_0 \mathcal{G}$ denotes the set consisting of the empty path.

2:3. For any (n, r) of numbers we define $p(n, r) = kp, P(n) = p_{nr}$. Consequently, p_{nr} is a cardinal number and not a system of sets. Of course, if $n < r$, then $p_{nr} = 0$. How to determine the numbers $p(n, r)$?

2:4. Theorem. Let $0 \leq r \leq n$ and let $e = (e_0, e_1, \dots, e_r) \in \binom{I_{1+n}}{1+r}$ be any strictly increasing sequence of digits $\in I_{1+n} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$. The number $p(n, 1+r)$ of $(1+r)$ — chains $x = (x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_r)$ satisfying $k(x_i) = e_i$ and $x \subset P(n)$ equals: $\binom{n}{e_0}$ for $r=0$; thus $\binom{n}{0} = 1$ provided $e_0 = 0$; and

$$(2:5) \quad n(e) = \binom{n}{e_r} \binom{e_r}{e_{r-1}} \binom{e_{r-1}}{e_{r-2}} \dots \binom{e_3}{e_2} \binom{e_2}{e_1} \binom{e_1}{e_0} \quad \text{for } r > 0.$$

Summing (2:5) through all $e \in \binom{I_{1+n}}{1+r}$ we get the number $p(n, 1+n)$ of all $(1+r)$ — chains $\subset P(n)$:

$$(2:6) \quad p(n, 1+r) = \sum_{e_r=r}^n \binom{n}{e_r} \sum_{e_{r-1}=r-1}^{e_r-1} \binom{e_r}{e_{r-1}} \dots \sum_{e_2=2}^{e_3-1} \binom{e_3}{e_2} \sum_{e_1=1}^{e_2-1} \binom{e_2}{e_1} \sum_{e_0=0}^{e_1-1} \binom{e_1}{e_0}.$$

In particular

$$(2:7) \quad p(n, 1) = 2^n,$$

$$(2:8) \quad p(n, 1+n) = n!$$

2:9. We put also

$p(n, 0) = 1$ since the empty set v is considered as a chain in $(P(n), \subset)$ for every $n \in N$. Thus v is a part as well as a member of $P(n)$ for every $n \in N$.

Proof. The particular case $r=0$ yields $e = (e_0)$ and the corresponding summation in (2:6) becomes $\sum_{e_0=0}^n \binom{n}{e_0} = 2^n$, i. e. (2:7) is holding. Let us consider the case that $r > 1$. Since $kx_r = e_r$, x_r is any member of $\binom{I_r}{e_r}$ and thus x_n can assume $\binom{n}{e_r}$ values. Since $x_{r-1} \subsetneq x_r$; $kx_{r-1} = e_{r-1}$, x_{r-1} is any $\in \binom{x_r}{e_{r-1}}$, thus x_{r-1} assumes $\binom{e_r}{e_{r-1}}$ values, ... By induction argument we infer that the formula (2:6) holds. In particular,

$$p(n, 1+n) = \binom{n}{n} \binom{n-1}{n-1} \binom{n-1}{n-2} \dots \binom{3}{2} \binom{2}{1} \binom{1}{0} = 1 \cdot n(n-1) \dots 2 \cdot 1 = n!$$

Taking the sum of the numbers $p(n, 1+r)$ for $r=0, 1, \dots, n$ we obtain the following:

2:10. Theorem. The number of non empty chains in $(P(n), \subset)$ equals

$$L_n = \sum_{r=0}^n p(n, 1+r) = \sum_{r=0}^n \sum_e \binom{n}{e_r} \binom{e_r}{e_{r-1}} \cdots \binom{e_2}{e_1} \binom{e_1}{e_0},$$

$$e := (e_0, e_1, \dots, e_r) \in \binom{I_{1+n}}{1+r}.$$

2:11. Theorem. For every natural number n and every $a \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ one has

$$(2:12) \quad p(n, 1+a) = \sum_{e_a=a}^n \binom{n}{e_a} \left(\sum_{e_{a-1}=a-1}^{e_a-1} \binom{e_a}{e_{a-1}} \left(\sum_{e_{a-2}=a-2}^{e_{a-1}-1} \binom{e_{a-1}}{e_{a-2}} \left(\cdots \right. \right. \right.$$

$$\left. \left. \left. \cdots \left(\sum_{e_1=1}^{e_2-1} \binom{e_2}{e_1} \left(\sum_{e_0=0}^{e_1-1} \binom{e_1}{e_0} \right) \right) \right) \right) \right) = \Delta^a 2^n =$$

$$= \sum_{s=0}^a (-1)^s \binom{a}{s} (a+2-s)^n.$$

Proof. The theorem was proved for $a=0$; (v. 1:1, 2:7). Let $a \geq 1$ and assume that (2:12) holds for every number a of indicated „parentheses“; let us prove it also for $1+a$ parentheses, i. e. that (2:12) holds.

Let us consider (2:12)₂; on applying 1:10 L step by step to expressions ${}_0({})_0, {}_1({})_1, \dots, {}_{a-2}({})_{a-2}$ the second part (2:12)₂ of (2:12) becomes

$$(2:12)_2 = \sum_{e_a=a}^n \binom{n}{e_a} \Delta^a 1^{e_a}; \text{ further, this equals (in virtue of } \sum_n^a = \sum_0^n - \sum_0^{a-1} \text{)}$$

$$\sum_{e_a=0}^n \binom{n}{e_a} 1^{e_r - \sum_{e_a=0}^{r-1} \binom{n}{e_a}} \Delta^a 1^{e_a} =$$

(apply 1:10 L to the first sum and 1:9 Th to the second sum)

$$= \Delta^{a2^n} - 0 = (2:12)_3$$

As to the equality (2:12)₃ = (2:12)₄ see (1:4) for $(n, m, h) = (m, n, 1)$. Q.E.D.

2:13. Remark. The equality (2:12)₁ = (2:12)₄ is due to M. Popadić [1951 formula (2)].

3. Another expression for $p(n, a)$. Let us reconsider the relation

$$(3:1) \quad p(n, a) := \sum_e n(e), \quad n(e) := \binom{e_1}{e_0} \binom{e_2}{e_1} \cdots \binom{n}{e_{a-1}}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{e_0! (e_1 - e_0)! (e_2 - e_1)! \cdots (e_{a-1} - e_{a-2})! (n - e_{a-1})!},$$

$$e := (e_0, e_1, \dots, e_{a-1}) \in \binom{I_{1+n}}{a}.$$

Instead of summing in (3:1) over $e \in \binom{I(1+n)}{a}$ we shall sum over e_0 and over the sequence d of differences

(3:2) $d_0 = e_1 - e_0, d_1 = e_2 - e_1, \dots, d_{a-2} = e_{a-1} - e_{a-2}$ (the number of terms of this sequence is $a-1$). We have

(3:3) $e_1 = e_0 + d_0, e_2 = e_0 + d_0 + d_1, \dots, e_{a-1} = e_0 + d_0 + d_1 + \dots + d_{a-2} = e_0 + sd,$
 where

(3:4) $sd := d_0 + d_1 + \dots + d_{a-2}.$

Since $e_{a-1} \leq n$ we infer that for a given sequence (3:2) of differences the greatest admissible value of e_0 satisfies $n = e_0 + d_0 + d_1 + \dots + d_{a-2}$, i. e.

(3:5) $e_0 \in \{0, 1, \dots, n - sd\}.$

3:6. Lemma. Let $d = d_0, d_1, \dots, d_{a-2}$ be any sequence of positive integers such that $sd \leq n$.

If $d' = d'_0, \dots, d'_{a-2}$ is any permutation of the sequence d , then

(3:7) $n[d] = n[d'],$

where, by definition, $n[d]$ denotes $\sum_e n(e)$, e satisfying (3:1), (3:2), in other words,

(3:8) $n[d] = \sum_{e_0=0}^{n-sd} \frac{n!}{e_0! d_0! d_1! \dots d_{a-2}! (n - e_{a-1})}.$

As a matter of fact, the last expression yields

$$n[d] = \frac{(n+1-sd)(n+2-sd)\dots n}{d_0! d_1! \dots d_{a-2}!} \sum_{e_0=0}^{n-sd} \binom{n-sd}{e_0} \text{ because } e_{a-1} = e_0 + sd,$$

$$\frac{n!}{e_0!(n-sd-e_0)!} = \binom{n-sd}{e_0} (n+1-sd)(n+2-sd)\dots(n-1)n.$$

Thus

(3:9) $n[d] = \frac{(n+1-sd)(n+2-sd)\dots n}{d_0! d_1! \dots d_{a-2}!} 2^{n-sd}.$

By the same argument we find the same expression for $n[d']$: $n[d'] = (3:9)_2$. This means that (3:7) is holding.

3:10. Main theorem. For any given 2-un (n, a) of natural numbers, let $p(n, a)$ denote the cardinal number of the system of all chains in $(P(n), \subset)$, each of cardinality a ; then

(3:11) $p(n, a) = \sum_d d! \frac{(n+1-sd)(n+2-sd)\dots n}{d_0! d_1! \dots d_{a-2}!} 2^{n-sd} = \Delta^{a-1} 2^n,$

where $d := (d_0, d_1, \dots, d_{a-2})$ runs through the set of all increasing sequences

(3:12) $d \dots d_0 \leq d_1 \leq \dots \leq d_{a-2}$

of natural numbers satisfying

(3:13) $sd := d_0 + d_1 + \dots + d_{a-2} \leq n$; in particular $d_0 \geq 1$; $d!$ denotes the number of all permutations of the sequence d .¹

In particular

(3:14) $p(n, n+1) = n! = \Delta^n 2^n$

(3:15) $p(n, n) = n! \frac{n+3}{2} = \Delta^{n-1} 2^n.$

(3:16) $p(n, n-1) = n! \left(\frac{n^2}{8} + \frac{13}{24}n + \frac{5}{12} \right) = \Delta^{n-2} 2^n.$

(3:17) $p(n, n-2) = n! \left(\frac{1}{48}n^3 + \frac{1}{12}n^2 + \frac{1}{48}n - \frac{1}{24} \right) = \Delta^{n-3} 2^n.$

Proof of the theorem.

3:18. First of all, instead to perform the summation in (3:1) for $p(n, a)$ over $e \in \binom{I(n+1)}{a}$ we shall do the summation over e_0 and over sequences (3:12); from (3:12) and (3:13) we infer that there is a one-to-one correspondence between e 's and e_0, d 's. The formula (3:1) yields

$$p(n, a) = \sum_{e_0, d} \frac{n!}{e_0! d_0! d_1! \dots d_{a-2}! (n - e_0 - sd)!} = \sum_d \sum_{e_0=0}^{n-sd} \frac{n!}{e_0! d_0! \dots d_{a-2}! (n - sd)!} = \sum_d n[d].$$

Here d means any sequence $d = d_0, d_1, \dots, d_{a-2}$ of positive integers such that $sd \leq n$. If d' is the normal permutation of d , i. e. such one that $d'_0 \leq d'_1 \leq \dots \leq d'_{a-2}$, then by virtue of the Lemma 3:6 we have $n[d] = n[d']$; consequently, $\sum n[d] = \sum [d']$, and this is exactly the content of the requested relation (3:11)₁ = (3:11)₂.

3:19. Case $p(n+1)$, i. e. $e = (0, 1, \dots, n)$, $d = 1, 1, \dots, 1$, $sd = n$; the formula (3:11) becomes precisely (3:14).

3:20. Case $p(n, n)$. The conditions (3:12), (3:13), $a = n$ yield that $sd = n - 1$ or $sd = n$. If $sd = n - 1$, then $d_i = 1$ ($i = 0, 1, \dots, n - 2$); $d! = 1$; the corresponding part in $p(n, n)$, according to (3:11), equals

$$1 \cdot \frac{2 \cdot 3 \dots n}{1! 1! \dots} 2 = 2n!$$

¹ If $f = f_1, f_2, \dots$ is any sequence of objects, a permutation of f is any sequence $f' = f'_1, f'_2, \dots$ such that the frequency νf_k of every object f_k in f equals the frequency of the same object of f' , and that the frequency $\nu f'_k$ of every term f'_k of f' equals the frequency of the same object in f .

If $f!$ denotes the total number of permutations of $f := (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n)$ then one knows that $f = n! \cdot \prod_x (\nu x)!$, $x \in \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$.

If $sd = n$, then necessarily $d = (1)_{n-2}, 2$; thus $d! = \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-2)!} = n-1$ and the corresponding part in $p(n, n)$ is $(n-1)! \frac{n!}{2!} 2^0 = \frac{n-1}{2!} n!$. Consequently,

$$p(n, n) = 2n! + \frac{n-1}{2} n! = n! \frac{n+3}{2} = (3:15)_2.$$

3:21. Expression for $p(n, n-1) = \Delta^{n-2} 2^n$.

If we have $a = n-1$, then in (3:11) the sequences d are of length $a-1 = n-2$ thus we have $1 \leq d_0 \leq d_1 \leq \dots \leq d_{n-3}$ and $sd := d_0 + d_1 + \dots + d_{n-3} \leq n$; therefore $sd \in \{n-2, n-1, n\}$.

(1) If $sd = n-2$, then necessarily $d = (1)_{n-2} := (1, \underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_{n-2})$; then $d! = 1$, $n+1-sd = 3$, and the term under \sum in (3:11) reads $\frac{3 \ 4 \ \dots \ n}{1! \ 1! \ 1! \ \dots \ 1!} 2^2 = 2n!$

(2) If $sd = n-1$, then $d = (1)_{n-3}, 2$, $d! = \frac{(n-2)!}{(n-3)!} 1! = n-2$; $n+1-sd = 2$; according to (3:11) we have

$$n[d] = (n-2) \frac{n!}{2!} 2^1 = (n-2)n!$$

(3) If $sd = n$, then $d = (1)_{n-3}, 3$ or $d = (1)_{n-4}, 2, 2$.

(3:1) The case $d = (1)_{n-3}, 3$ yields $d! = \frac{(n-2)!}{(n-3)!} = n-2$, $n+1-sd = 1$, $n[d] = (n-2) \frac{n!}{3!} 2^0 = (n-2) \frac{n!}{3!}$.

(3:2) The case $d = (1)_{n-4}, (2)_2$ yields

$$d! = \frac{(n-2)!}{(n-4)! 2!} = \frac{(n-3)(n-2)}{2}, \quad n+1-sd = 1,$$

$$n[d] = \frac{(n-3)(n-2)}{2} \frac{n!}{2! 2!} 2^0 = \frac{(n-3)(n-2)}{8} n!.$$

(4) The summation of all these 4 cases yields

$$\begin{aligned} p(n, n-1) &= 2n! + (n-2)n! + (n-2) \frac{n!}{3!} + \frac{(n-3)(n-2)}{8} n! = \\ &= n! \left(\frac{n^2}{8} + \frac{24+4-15}{24} n + \frac{48-48-8+18}{24} \right) = n! \left(\frac{n^2}{8} + \frac{13}{24} n + \frac{5}{12} \right) = (3:16)_2. \end{aligned}$$

3:22. Number $p(n, n-2) = \Delta^{n-3} 2^n$. We shall apply the main theorem 3:10 putting $a = n-2$; consequently, for any $e \in \binom{I(n+1)}{a}$ the corresponding difference sequence d has $n-3$ terms: $d = d_0 \leq d_1 \leq \dots \leq d_{n-4}$. Therefore we assume $n > 4$. Since $n-3 \leq sd \leq n$ we have to consider the following 4 cases:

(1) $sd = n-3$; in this case: $d = (1)_{n-3}$, $d! = 1$, $n+1-sd = 4$, therefore $n[d] = \frac{n!}{3!} 2^3$;

(2) $sd = n-2$; in this case $d = (1)_{n-4}, 2$; $d! = \frac{(n-3)!}{(n-4)!} = n-3$; $n+1-sd = 3$; therefore the summand in (3:11)₂ becomes

$$n[d] = (n-3) \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{n!}{2!} 2^2 = n! (n-3);$$

(3) $sd = n-1$; in this case $d \in ((1)_{n-4}, 3)$; $((1)_{n-5} (2)_2)$, $n+1-sd = 2$;

(3.1) If $d = (1)_{n-4}, 3$, then $d! = n-3$ and

$$n[d] = (n-3) \frac{n!}{3!} 2;$$

(3.2) If $d = (1)_{n-5} (2)_2$, then $d! = \frac{(n-3)!}{(n-5)! 2!} = \frac{(n-4)(n-3)}{2}$, and

$$n[d] = \frac{(n-4)(n-3)}{2} \frac{n!}{2! 2!} 2^1;$$

(4) $sd = n$; in this case $d = (1)_{n-4}, 4$ or $d = (1)_{n-5}, 2 \cdot 3$, or $d = (1)_{n-6} (2)_3$, $n+1-sd = 2$.

(4.1) If $d = (1)_{n-4}, 4$, then $d! = n-3$,

$$n[d] = (n-3) \frac{n!}{4!} 2^0;$$

(4.2) If $d = (1)_{n-5}, 2, 3$ then $d! = \frac{(n-3)!}{(n-5)!} = (n-4)(n-3)$,

$$n[d] = (n-4)(n-3) \frac{n!}{2! 3!} 2^0.$$

(4.3) If $d = (1)_{n-6} (2)_3$, then $d! = \frac{(n-3)!}{(n-6)! 3!} = \frac{(n-5)(n-4)(n-3)}{3!}$,

$$n[d] = \frac{(n-5)(n-4)(n-3)}{3!} \frac{n!}{(2!)^3} 2^0.$$

Summing the obtained values for $n[d]$ one gets (3:17)₂.

4. Table and some properties of the numbers $p(n, s)$.

4:1. Table of numbers $p(n, r) = \Delta^{r-1} 2^n$.

By either of the formulae (2:6), (2:11), (3:10) one could establish the following values for $\Delta^r 2^n (= p(n, 1+r))$.

$n \setminus r$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	2	1							
2	4	5	2						
3	8	19	18	6					
4	16	65	110	84	24				
5	32	211	570	750	480	120			
6	64	665	2702	5460	5880	3240	720		
7	128	2059	12138	35406	57120	52080	25200	5040	

Remark. Maximal members in every line are bold-faced.

4:2. We observe and check that every row of the table has an initial strictly increasing segment and a terminating one which is strictly decreasing.

4:2:1. Is the union of these maximal parts the row itself? In other words, is every row of $\Delta^r 2^n$ (n is fixed) decomposable into an initial maximal segment which is strictly increasing and the remaining terminal segment which is strictly decreasing?

4:2:2. If q_n is the ratio of the lengths of these two segments, find $\lim q_n, \lim q_n$.

4:2:3. E. g. one checks easily that

$$6 < n \in N \Rightarrow p(n, n-2) > p(n, n-1) > p(n, n) > p(n, n+1).$$

As a matter of fact, for the expression

$$g(n) := n!^{-1} (p(n, n-2) - p(n, n-1))$$

in virtue of (3:16), (3:17) we have

$$g(n) = \frac{1}{48} n^3 - \frac{1}{24} n^2 - \frac{25}{48} n - \frac{11}{24}$$

and one sees that $g(n) > 0$ for $6 < n \in N$.

4:3. Function $2(n)$. For $n \in N$ let $2(n)$ be defined by

$$(4:3:1) \quad \Delta^{2(n)} 2^n = \sup_k \Delta^k 2^n;$$

4:4:2. We guess that $2(n) \geq \left[\frac{1+n}{2} \right]$ for every $n \in N \setminus \{3\}$.

4:4. More generally, for any $r \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ and any natural number n let $r(n)$ be the first natural number $x \in N$ such that

$$(4:4:1) \quad \Delta^x r^n = \sup_k \Delta^k r^n.$$

4:4:2. **Problem.** Is $r(n) \geq \left\lfloor \frac{1+n}{2} \right\rfloor$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{3\}$?

4:4:3. **Problem.** Is $r(n)$ the unique solution of the relation (4:4:1)?

4:4:4. **Problem.** Do the relations $1 \neq \Delta^a 2^n = \Delta^{a'} 2^{n'}$ have only the trivial solution $(a, n) = (a', n')$?

4:4:5. **Problem.** Find the solution set of $\Delta^a b^c = \Delta^{a'} b^{c'} \neq 1$.

Remark that e. g. for the case $b = b' = 0$ one has $\Delta^2 0^3 = \Delta^3 0^3 (= 6)$. Is it the unique non trivial solution of $\Delta^a 0^c = \Delta^{a'} 0^{c'}$?

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