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**ON THE NUMBER OF NILPOTENTS IN THE PARTIAL  
SYMMETRIC SEMIGROUP**

A. Laradji and A. Umar

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By

A. Laradji and A. Umar

## Abstract

In a semigroup  $S$  with zero  $(0)$ , an element  $a$  in  $S$  is called nilpotent if there exists a natural number  $n$  such that  $a^n = 0$ . In this note we obtain a formula for the total number of nilpotents in  $P_n$ , the partial symmetric semigroup and  $I_n$ , the symmetric inverse semigroup.

KEY WORDS: Semigroup, idempotent, nilpotent, symmetric semigroup, symmetric inverse semigroup, partial symmetric semigroup, Stirling numbers, Lah numbers, generalized Laguerre polynomials.

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## Introduction

Let  $X_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  then a (partial) transformation  $\alpha : \text{Dom } \alpha \subseteq X_n \rightarrow \text{Im } \alpha$  is said to be a *full* or *total* transformation if  $\text{Dom } \alpha = X_n$ ; otherwise it is called *strictly partial*. Three fundamental semigroups of transformations under the usual composite that have been extensively studied are:  $T_n$ , the full transformation semigroup (or the symmetric semigroup);  $I_n$ , the semigroup of partial one-one mappings (or the symmetric inverse semigroup); and  $P_n$  the semigroup of partial transformations (or the partial symmetric semigroup). Partial one-one mappings are also known as subpermutations [2]. Enumerative problems of an essentially combinatorial nature arise naturally in the study of semigroups of transformations. If we denote by  $S_n$ , the symmetric group, then Howie [8] showed that  $T_n \setminus S_n = \text{Sing}_n$  is idempotent generated and Tainiter [11] showed that the total number of its idempotent is

$$\sum_{r=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{r} r^{n-r}.$$

In a semigroup  $S$  with  $0$ , an element  $a$  in  $S$  is called *nilpotent* if there exists a natural number  $n$  such that  $a^n = 0$ . Gomes and Howie [7] showed that  $I_n \setminus S_n = SI_n$  is nilpotent generated if  $n$  is even, and also characterized the nilpotent generated subsemigroup if  $n$  is odd. Simultaneously and independently, Sullivan [10] obtained similar results for  $P_n \setminus T_n = SP_n$ . Moreover, for the nilpotent case, Garba [5 & 6] obtained analogous results to Howie and McFadden [9] in the idempotent case. Gomes and Howie [7] computed the number of nilpotents of  $I_n$  of height  $n - 1$  (*height*  $\alpha = |\text{Im } \alpha|$ ) to be  $n!$ . It is worth noting that the number of nilpotents of  $P_n$  of height  $n - 1$  is also  $n!$ , since they must be one-one.

The total number of nilpotents in  $P_n$  and  $I_n$  does not seem to have been investigated and in this note we set out to investigate these numbers.

## The Main Result

First, let  $S$  be one of the semigroups  $P_n$  or  $I_n$  and for  $r = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ ; let

$$N(J_r) = \{\alpha \in S : |\text{Im } \alpha| = r \text{ and } \alpha \text{ is nilpotent}\} \quad (1)$$

be the set of all nilpotents in  $S$  of height  $r$ . Next, as in [9] we define the Stirling number of the second kind,  $S(n, r)$  as the *total number of partitions of an  $n$ -element set into  $r$  nonempty subsets*. Alternatively,  $S(n, r)$  can be defined by the initial conditions  $S(n, 0) = S(n, 1) = S(n, n) = 1$  and the recurrence relation  $S(n, r) = S(n-1, r-1) + rS(n-1, r)$ , ( $n \geq r$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ). Then the principal result of this paper is:

**Theorem 1** *Let  $N(J_r)$  be as defined in (1). Then for the semigroups  $P_n$  and  $I_n$ , respectively, we have*

$$(a) \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} |N(J_r)| = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{r} S(n, r+1)r! = (n+1)^{n-1};$$

$$(b) |N(J_r)| = \binom{n}{r} \binom{n-1}{r} r! = |L_{n, n-r}|, \text{ where } L_{n, r} = (-1)^n \binom{n-1}{r-1} \frac{n!}{r!} \text{ is the Lah number [3].}$$

As a first step towards the proof of the above theorem we show that [7, Lemma 2.1] which gives a characterization of nilpotents in  $I_n$  can be extended to  $P_n$ .

**Lemma 2** *An element  $\alpha$  in  $P_n$  is nilpotent if and only if there exists no nonempty subset  $A$  of  $\text{Dom } \alpha$  such that  $A\alpha = A$ .*

**Proof.** The direct half of the proof is exactly as in [7] since the one-one property has not been used.

Conversely, suppose that  $\alpha$  is not nilpotent. Then by finiteness

$$\text{Dom } \alpha \supseteq \text{Dom } \alpha^2 \supseteq \dots \supseteq \text{Dom } \alpha^n = \text{Dom } \alpha^{n+1}$$

for some natural number  $n$  and  $\text{Dom } \alpha^n = \text{Dom } \alpha^{n+1} \neq \emptyset$ , by nonnilpotency. Now let  $\beta = \alpha^n$  and fix  $x \in \text{Dom } \beta$ . Next for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$  define

$$A_i = \{x\beta^i, x\beta^{i+1}, \dots\}$$

then it follows that

$$A_1 \supseteq A_2 \supseteq \dots \supseteq A_k = A_{k+1}$$

for some natural number  $k$ . Hence  $x\beta^k \in A_k = A_{k+1}$ , and so  $x\beta^k = x\beta^{k+r}$  for some natural number  $r$ . Put  $x\beta^k = y$  then  $y\beta^r = y$  and so  $y\alpha^{nr} = y$ . Finally, let

$$A = \{y, y\alpha, \dots, y\alpha^{t-1}\} \neq \emptyset \quad (t = nr)$$

then

$$A\alpha = \{y\alpha, y\alpha^2, \dots, y\alpha^{t-1}, y\} = A,$$

as required.

An immediate consequence of the above lemma is that nilpotent partial transformations are cycle-free (in particular, have no fixed points) and they are strictly partial (i. e.,  $X_n \setminus \text{Dom } \alpha$  is nonempty).

**Proof of Theorem 1.**

(a) We begin by determining the cardinality of  $N(J_r)$ . For each partition of  $X_n$  into  $r+1$  nonempty subsets, we can define an element  $\alpha$  in  $N(J_r)$  in the following way. We let one of the  $r+1$  subsets be  $X_n \setminus \text{Dom } \alpha$  and let the remaining  $r$  subsets be pre-images of  $\alpha$ . Note that we can partition  $X_n$  into  $r+1$  nonempty subsets in  $S(n, r+1)$  ways. Next we can choose the  $r$  images of  $\alpha$  from  $X_n$ , say  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r\}$  in  $\binom{n}{r}$  ways. Finally, we have to tie these  $r$  images to their pre-images in a one-one fashion and simultaneously avoiding cycles. We achieve this by identifying the forbidden pre-images of  $x_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ ).

First note that  $x_1$  cannot have as pre-image the partition class containing itself, but can have any of the other  $r$  classes as possible pre-images and so  $x_1$  has  $r$  degrees of freedom. Next, note that  $x_2$  cannot have  $x_1\alpha^{-1}$  as a pre-image and also the partition class containing itself. However, note that the partition class containing  $x_2$  could be  $x_1\alpha^{-1}$  in which case  $x_2 \in x_1\alpha^{-1}$  (equivalently,  $x_2\alpha = x_1$ ). Then  $x_2$  cannot also have the partition class containing  $x_1$  as a pre-image, for that will mean  $x_1\alpha = x_2$  and so we have a cycle  $(x_2x_1)$  in  $\alpha$ . Moreover, the partition class containing  $x_1$  and  $x_1\alpha^{-1}$  are necessarily distinct by the non-choice of the former as a possible pre-image of  $x_1$  and so in either eventuality  $x_2$  has  $r-1$  degrees of freedom. Now, in a recursive way we define the set of forbidden pre-images of  $x_k$  (for  $k = 2, 3, \dots, r$ ) as

$$\{x_1\alpha^{-1}, x_2\alpha^{-1}, \dots, x_{k-1}\alpha^{-1}, A_k\},$$

where  $A_i$  is the partition class containing  $x_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ ). Then as in the case of  $x_2$  above,  $A_k$  could be one of the already chosen pre-images say,  $x_i\alpha^{-1}$  (for some  $i < k$ ). If this happens then  $x_k$  cannot also have  $A_i$  as a pre-image, and so  $A_i$  replaces the last  $A_k$  in the set of forbidden pre-images. Should this  $A_i$  be one of the already chosen pre-images then we repeat the same argument until we find a required forbidden pre-image that is distinct from all the previously chosen pre-images. Of course, this process cannot go on indefinitely, because of finiteness, and the fact that there are no cycles up to the choice of  $x_{k-1}\alpha^{-1}$ . Moreover, the  $r+1$  partition classes that we have as compared to the  $r$  images guarantees that we can find a required forbidden partition class that is distinct from all the previously chosen pre-images. Thus  $x_k$  has  $(r+1) - k$  degrees of freedom. Therefore the total number of ways of tying the  $x_i$ 's to their pre-images in a one-one fashion and simultaneously avoiding cycles is  $r(r-1)(r-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1 = r!$ . Hence, we have

$$|N(J_r)| = \binom{n}{r} S(n, r+1)r!. \tag{2}$$

In particular, we have from (2) that

$$|N(J_{n-1})| = \binom{n}{n-1} S(n, n)(n-1)! = n!,$$

as found by Gomes and Howie [7, page 388].

Before stating the next proposition let us define the *descending (or falling) factorial of a natural number  $x$*  as

$$(x)_n = x(x-1)(x-2)\cdots(x-n+1).$$

The following well known identity is sometimes used to define the Stirling numbers of the second kind

$$\sum_{r=0}^n S(n, r)(x)_r = x^n.$$

Now we have

**Proposition 3**  $\sum_{r=0}^n S(n, r+1)(x)_r = (x+1)^{n-1}.$

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x)^{n-1} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \sum_{j=0}^k S(k, j)(x)_j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} S(k, j)(x)_j \end{aligned}$$

By Theorem B in [4, page 209], we have

$$S(n, j+1) = \sum_{k=j}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} S(k, j).$$

Therefore

$$(x+1)^{n-1} = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} S(n, r+1)(x)_r,$$

as required. Thus the proof of Theorem 1(a) is complete.

(b) Here we begin with the image set, say  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r\}$  whose elements can be chosen from  $X_n$  in  $\binom{n}{r}$  ways. Now to tie each of these images to their preimages in a one-one fashion and simultaneously avoiding cycles we argue exactly as in (a) above to get the first equality of Theorem 1(b), that is

$$|N(J_r)| = \binom{n}{r} (n-1)_r = \binom{n}{r} \binom{n-1}{r} r!. \quad (3)$$

In particular, we have from (3) that

$$|J_{n-1}| = \binom{n}{n-1} \binom{n-1}{n-1} (n-1)! = n!.$$

To complete the proof of Theorem 1(b), we let

$$U_{n,k} = \binom{n}{k} \binom{n-1}{k} k!.$$

Now replacing  $k$  by  $n-k$  we get from [4, page 156]

$$U_{n,n-k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} \frac{n!}{k!} = |L_{n,k}|.$$

A closed formula for  $\sum U_{n,k}$  seems out of reach, however, a recurrence relation is possible. The generalized Laguerre polynomial of degree  $n$  is given in [3, page 145] by

$$L_n^{(a)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n+a}{n-k} \frac{(-x)^k}{k!} \quad (4)$$

so that

$$U_n = \sum_{k=0}^n U_{n,k} = n! L_n^{(-1)}(-1).$$

From [3, page 153, equation (2.2)], we deduce

$$n \frac{U_n}{n!} = (2n-1) \frac{U_{n-1}}{(n-1)!} - (n-2) \frac{U_{n-2}}{(n-2)!}$$

which gives

**Proposition 4**  $U_n = (2n-1)U_{n-1} - (n-1)(n-2)U_{n-2}$ .

Finally, if we denote by  $C_n$  the order of the symmetric inverse semigroup  $I_n$ , that is

$$C_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 k!,$$

then we can easily deduce that

$$U_n = C_n - nC_{n-1},$$

which gives an alternative way of computing  $U_n$  since we know from [1] that  $C_n$  satisfies the following recurrence relation:

**Theorem 5** [1, Proposition 2.1(b)]  $C_n = 2nC_{n-1} - (n-1)^2C_{n-2}$ .

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### Address:

Department of Mathematical Sciences  
King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals  
Dhahran 31261, Saudi Arabia

E-mail:alaradji@kfupm.edu.sa

E-mail:aumar@kfupm.edu.sa