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## 5.7 Lengyel's Constant

### 5.7.1 Stirling Partition Numbers

Let  $S$  be a set with  $n$  elements. The set of all subsets of  $S$  has  $2^n$  elements. By a **partition** of  $S$  we mean a disjoint set of nonempty subsets (called **blocks**) whose union is  $S$ . The set of partitions of  $S$  that possess exactly  $k$  blocks has  $S_{n,k}$  elements, where  $S_{n,k}$  is a

**Stirling number of the second kind.** The set of *all* partitions of  $S$  has  $B_n$  elements, where  $B_n$  is a **Bell number**:

$$B_n = \sum_{k=1}^n S_{n,k} = \frac{1}{e} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{j^n}{j!} = \left. \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \exp(e^x - 1) \right|_{x=0}.$$

For example,  $S_{4,1} = 1$ ,  $S_{4,2} = 7$ ,  $S_{4,3} = 6$ ,  $S_{4,4} = 1$ , and  $B_4 = 15$ . More generally,  $S_{n,1} = 1$ ,  $S_{n,2} = 2^{n-1} - 1$ , and  $S_{n,3} = \frac{1}{2}(3^{n-1} + 1) - 2^{n-1}$ . The following recurrences are helpful [1–4]:

$$S_{n,0} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } n \geq 1, \end{cases} \quad S_{n,k} = kS_{n-1,k} + S_{n-1,k-1} \quad \text{if } n \geq k \geq 1,$$

$$B_0 = 1, \quad B_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} B_k.$$

and corresponding asymptotics are discussed in [5–9].

### 5.7.2 Chains in the Subset Lattice of $S$

If  $U$  and  $V$  are subsets of  $S$ , write  $U \subset V$  if  $U$  is a proper subset of  $V$ . This endows the set of all subsets of  $S$  with a **partial ordering**; in fact, it is a **lattice** with maximum element  $S$  and minimum element  $\emptyset$ . The number of **chains**  $\emptyset = U_0 \subset U_1 \subset \dots \subset U_{k-1} \subset U_k = S$  of length  $k$  is  $k!S_{n,k}$ . Hence the number of all chains from  $\emptyset$  to  $S$  is [1, 6, 10]

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k!S_{n,k} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{j^n}{2^{j+1}} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Li}_{-n} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = \left. \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \frac{1}{2 - e^x} \right|_{x=0} \sim \frac{n!}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\ln(2)} \right)^{n+1},$$

where  $\text{Li}_m(x)$  is the polylogarithm function. Wilf [10] marveled at how accurate this asymptotic approximation is.

If we further insist that the chains are **maximal**, equivalently, that additional proper insertions are impossible, then the number of such chains is  $n!$  A general technique due to Doubilet, Rota & Stanley [11], involving what are called *incidence algebras*, can be used to obtain the two aforementioned results, as well as to enumerate chains within more complicated posets [12].

As an aside, we give a deeper application of incidence algebras: to enumerating chains of linear subspaces within finite vector spaces [6]. Define the  **$q$ -binomial coefficient** and  **$q$ -factorial** by

$$\binom{n}{k}_q = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^n (q^j - 1)}{\prod_{j=1}^k (q^j - 1) \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{n-k} (q^j - 1)},$$

$$[n!]_q = (1 + q)(1 + q + q^2) \cdots (1 + q + \dots + q^{n-1}),$$

where  $q > 1$ . Note the special case in the limit as  $q \rightarrow 1^+$ . Consider the  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $\mathbb{F}_q^n$  over the finite field  $\mathbb{F}_q$ , where  $q$  is a prime power [12–16]. The number of  $k$ -dimensional linear subspaces of  $\mathbb{F}_q^n$  is  $\binom{n}{k}_q$  and the total number of linear subspaces of  $\mathbb{F}_q^n$  is asymptotically  $c_e q^{n^2/4}$  if  $n$  is even and  $c_o q^{n^2/4}$  if  $n$  is odd, where [17, 18]

$$c_e = \frac{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{-k^2}}{\prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^{-j})}, \quad c_o = \frac{\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} q^{-(k+\frac{1}{2})^2}}{\prod_{j=1}^{\infty} (1 - q^{-j})}.$$

We give a recurrence for the number  $\chi_n$  of chains of proper subspaces (again, ordered by inclusion):

$$\chi_1 = 1, \quad \chi_n = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k}_q \chi_k \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

For the asymptotics, it follows that [6, 17]

$$\chi_n \sim \frac{1}{\zeta_q'(r)r} \left(\frac{1}{r}\right)^n \prod_{j=1}^n (q^j - 1) = \frac{A}{r^n} (q - 1)(q^2 - 1)(q^3 - 1) \cdots (q^n - 1),$$

where  $\zeta_q(x)$  is the zeta function for the poset of subspaces:

$$\zeta_q(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{(q - 1)(q^2 - 1)(q^3 - 1) \cdots (q^k - 1)}$$

and  $r > 0$  is the unique solution of the equation  $\zeta_q(r) = 1$ . In particular, when  $q = 2$ , we have  $c_e = 7.3719688014 \dots$ ,  $c_o = 7.3719494907 \dots$ , and

$$\chi_n \sim \frac{A}{r^n} \cdot Q \cdot 2^{\frac{n(n+1)}{2}},$$

where  $r = 0.7759021363 \dots$ ,  $A = 0.8008134543 \dots$ , and

$$Q = \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^k}\right) = 0.2887880950 \dots$$

is one of the digital search tree constants [5.14]. If we further insist that the chains are maximal, then the number of such chains is  $[n!]_q$ .

### 5.7.3 Chains in the Partition Lattice of $S$

We have discussed chains in the poset of subsets of the set  $S$ . There is, however, another poset associated naturally with  $S$  that is less familiar and more difficult to study: the **poset of partitions** of  $S$ . Here is the partial ordering: Assuming  $P$  and  $Q$  are two partitions of  $S$ , then  $P < Q$  if  $P \neq Q$  and if  $p \in P$  implies that  $p$  is a subset of  $q$  for some  $q \in Q$ . In other words,  $P$  is a *refinement* of  $Q$  in the sense that each of its blocks fits within a block of  $Q$ . For arbitrary  $n$ , the poset is, in fact, a lattice with minimum element  $m = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \dots, \{n\}\}$  and maximum element  $M = \{\{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}$ .

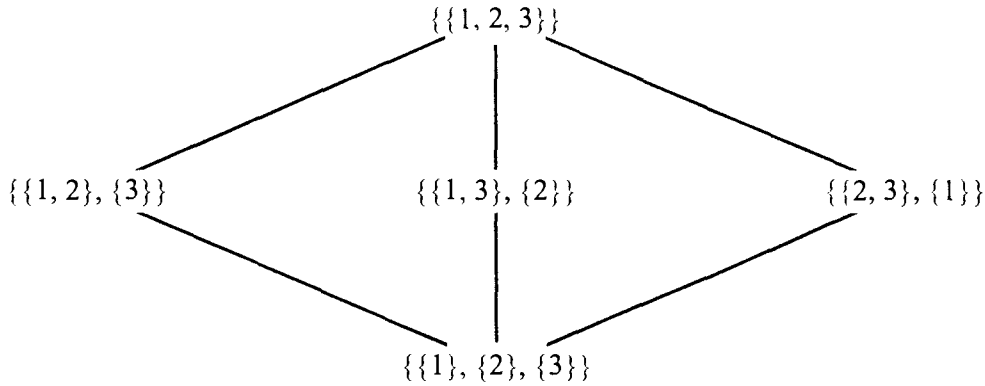


Figure 5.10. The number of chains  $m < P_1 < M$  in the partition lattice of the set  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is three.

What is the number of chains  $m = P_0 < P_1 < P_2 < \dots < P_{k-1} < P_k = M$  of length  $k$  in the partition lattice of  $S$ ? In the case  $n = 3$ , there is only one chain for  $k = 1$ , specifically,  $m < M$ . For  $k = 2$ , there are three such chains as pictured in Figure 5.10.

Let  $Z_n$  denote the number of all chains from  $m$  to  $M$  of any length; clearly  $Z_1 = Z_2 = 1$  and, by the foregoing,  $Z_3 = 4$ . We have the recurrence

$$Z_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} S_{n,k} Z_k$$

and exponential generating function

$$Z(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{Z_n}{n!} x^n, \quad 2Z(x) = x + Z(e^x - 1),$$

but techniques of Doubilet, Rota & Stanley and Bender do not apply here to give asymptotic estimates of  $Z_n$ . The partition lattice is the first natural lattice without the structure of a *binomial lattice*, which implies that well-known generating function techniques are no longer helpful.

Lengyel [19] formulated a different approach to prove that the quotient

$$r_n = \frac{Z_n}{(n!)^2 (2 \ln(2))^{-n} n^{-1 - \ln(2)/3}}$$

must be bounded between two positive constants as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . He presented numerical evidence suggesting that  $r_n$  tends to a unique value. Babai & Lengyel [20] then proved a fairly general convergence criterion that enabled them to conclude that  $\Lambda = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n$  exists and  $\Lambda = 1.09\dots$ . The analysis in [19] involves intricate estimates of the Stirling numbers; in [20], the focus is on nearly convex linear recurrences with finite retardation and active predecessors.

In an ambitious undertaking, Flajolet & Salvy [21] computed  $\Lambda = 1.0986858055\dots$ . Their approach is based on (complex fractional) analytic iterates of  $\exp(x) - 1$  and much more, but unfortunately their paper is presently incomplete. See [5.8] for related discussion of the Takeuchi-Prellberg constant.

By way of contrast, the number of *maximal* chains is given exactly by  $n!(n - 1)!/2^{n-1}$  and Lengyel [19] observed that  $Z_n$  exceeds this by an exponentially large factor.

### 5.7.4 Random Chains

Van Cutsem & Ycart [22] examined random chains in both the subset and partition lattices. It is remarkable that a common framework exists for studying these and that, in a certain sense, the limiting distributions of both types of chains are *identical*. We mention only one consequence: If  $\kappa_n = k/n$  is the normalized length of the random chain, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(\kappa_n) = \frac{1}{2 \ln(2)} = 0.7213475204 \dots$$

and a corresponding Central Limit Theorem also holds.

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### 5.8 Takeuchi–Prellberg Constant

In 1978, Takeuchi defined a triply recursive function [1, 2]

$$t(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } x \leq y, \\ t(t(x-1, y, z), t(y-1, z, x), t(z-1, x, y)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

that is useful for benchmark testing of programming languages. The value of  $t(x, y, z)$  is of no practical significance; in fact, McCarthy [1, 2] observed that the function can be described more simply as

$$t(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} y & \text{if } x \leq y, \\ \begin{cases} z & \text{if } y \leq z, \\ x & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The interesting quantity is not  $t(x, y, z)$ , but rather  $T(x, y, z)$ , defined to be the number of times the *otherwise* clause is invoked in the recursion. We assume that the program is memoryless in the sense that previously computed results are not available at any time in the future. Knuth [1, 3] studied the **Takeuchi numbers**  $T_n = T(n, 0, n+1)$ :

$$T_0 = 0, T_1 = 1, T_2 = 4, T_3 = 14, T_4 = 53, T_5 = 223, \dots$$

and deduced that

$$e^{n \ln(n) - n \ln(\ln(n)) - n} < T_n < e^{n \ln(n) - n + \ln(n)}$$

for all sufficiently large  $n$ . He asked for more precise asymptotic information about the growth of  $T_n$ .

Starting with Knuth's recursive formula for the Takeuchi numbers

$$T_{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^n \left[ \binom{n+k}{n} - \binom{n+k}{n+1} \right] T_{n-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{2k}{k} \frac{1}{k+1}$$

and the somewhat related Bell numbers [5.7]

$$B_{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} B_{n-k}, \quad B_0 = 1, B_1 = 1, B_2 = 2, B_3 = 5, B_4 = 15, B_5 = 52, \dots$$

Prellberg [4] observed that the following limit exists:

$$c = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T_n}{B_n \exp\left(\frac{1}{2} W_n^2\right)} = 2.2394331040 \dots,$$

where  $W_n \exp(W_n) = n$  are special values of the Lambert  $W$  function [6.11].

Since both the Bell numbers and the  $W$  function are well understood, this provides an answer to Knuth's question. The underlying theory is still under development, but

Prellberg's numerical evidence is persuasive. Recent theoretical work [5] relates the constant  $c$  to an associated functional equation,

$$T(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} T_n z^n, \quad T(z) = \frac{T(z - z^2)}{z} - \frac{1}{(1 - z)(1 - z + z^2)},$$

in a manner parallel to how Lengyel's constant [5.7] is obtained.

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### 5.9 Pólya's Random Walk Constants

Let  $L$  denote the  $d$ -dimensional cubic lattice whose vertices are precisely all integer points in  $d$ -dimensional space. A **walk**  $\omega$  on  $L$ , beginning at the origin, is an infinite sequence of vertices  $\omega_0, \omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3, \dots$  with  $\omega_0 = 0$  and  $|\omega_{j+1} - \omega_j| = 1$  for all  $j$ . Assume that the walk is random and symmetric in the sense that, at each time step, all  $2d$  directions of possible travel have equal probability. What is the likelihood that  $\omega_n = 0$  for some  $n > 0$ ? That is, what is the **return probability**  $p_d$ ?

Pólya [1–4] proved the remarkable fact that  $p_1 = p_2 = 1$  but  $p_d < 1$  for  $d > 2$ . McCrea & Whipple [5], Watson [6], Domb [7] and Glasser & Zucker [8] each contributed facets of the following evaluations of  $p_3 = 1 - 1/m_3 = 0.3405373295\dots$ , where the expected number  $m_3$  of returns to the origin, plus one, is

$$\begin{aligned} m_3 &= \frac{3}{(2\pi)^3} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{3 - \cos(\theta) - \cos(\varphi) - \cos(\psi)} d\theta d\varphi d\psi \\ &= \frac{12}{\pi^2} \left( 18 + 12\sqrt{2} - 10\sqrt{3} - 7\sqrt{6} \right) K \left[ (2 - \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{2}) \right]^2 \\ &= 3 \left( 18 + 12\sqrt{2} - 10\sqrt{3} - 7\sqrt{6} \right) \left[ 1 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \exp(-\sqrt{6}\pi k^2) \right]^4 \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{6}}{32\pi^3} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{24}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{5}{24}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{7}{24}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{11}{24}\right) = 1.5163860591\dots \end{aligned}$$

Hence the **escape probability** for a random walk on the three-dimensional cubic lattice is  $1 - p_3 = 0.6594626704\dots$ . In these expressions,  $K$  denotes the complete elliptic integral of the first kind [1.4.6] and  $\Gamma$  denotes the gamma function [1.5.4]. Return and escape probabilities can also be computed for the body-centered or face-centered cubic