## ON THE NUMBER OF SUBPERMUTATIONS WITH FIXED ORBIT SIZE

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#### Abstract

Consider an n-set, say  $X_n = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . An exponential generating function and recurrence relation for the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$ , whose orbits are of size at most  $k \geq 0$  are obtained. Similar results for the number of nilpotent subpermutations of nilpotency index at most k, and exactly k are also given, along with arithmetic and asymmtotic formulas for these numbers.

### 1 Introduction and Preliminaries

Let  $X_n = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Then a (partial) transformation  $\alpha$ : Dom  $\alpha \subseteq X_n \longrightarrow \operatorname{Im} \alpha \subseteq X_n$  is said to be *full* or *total* if Dom,  $\alpha = X_n$ ; otherwise it is called *strictly* partial. A partial

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transformation is *nilpotent* if  $\alpha^k = \emptyset$  (the empty or zero map) for some positive integer k. The *nilpotency index* of a nilpotent  $\alpha$  is k, if  $\alpha^k = \emptyset$  and  $\alpha^{k-1} \neq \emptyset$ . The set of partial one-to-one transformations of  $X_n$ , with composition as binary operation, is known as the *symmetric inverse semigroup* and is denoted by  $I_n$ . Partial one-to-one transformations are also called subpermutations, see Cameron and Deza [3]. A (sub)permutation without fixed points is called a (partial) derangement. Each subpermutation  $\alpha$  (of  $X_n$ ) can be pictured as a digraph on n vertices with ij an edge of  $\alpha$  if  $i\alpha = j$ . Each component of such a digraph is called an orbit, and they are of two types: cycles (including 1-cycles or fixed points) and simple paths. Note that whilst the size and length of a cycle are the same, the length of a path is its size minus one, except for the empty path which has size and length equal to zero. Moreover, the nilpotency index of a subpermutation coincides with the maximum size of its constituent paths, except the empty subpermutation or zero whose nilpotency index is one.

As far back as 1987, Gomes and Howie [7] remarked that very little has been written on  $I_n$ . Despite the appearance of the books of Lipscomb [12] and Ganyushkin and Mazorchuk [6] and numerous papers (for example, [1, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11]), the study of  $I_n$  is still in its infancy relative to its cousin  $S_n$ , the permutation group on an n-set or even  $T_n$ , the full transformation semigroup on an n-set.

It is known (see for example, Wilf [14]) that  $\sigma(n, k)$ , the number of permutations of n objects the size (or length) of all of whose cycles is at most k, has exponential generating function

(1) 
$$e^{x+x^2/2+ \cdots + x^k/k},$$

and satisfies the recurrence

(2) 
$$\sigma(n+1,k) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{n!}{(n-j)!} \sigma(n-j,k).$$

Our aim in this note is to obtain similar results for  $p\sigma(n,k)$ , the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$  with orbits of size at most k(>0). As a by-product, we obtain a recurrence relation and the exponential generating function for  $\nu(n,k)$ , the number of nilpotent subpermutations of n objects with nilpotency index at most k and those with nilpotency index exactly k.

Let b(n, k) be the number of subpermutations on  $X_n$  all of whose orbits are of size at most k and without fixed points, so that they may contain j-cycles for  $1 < j \le k$ , but not 1-cycles. In other words, b(n, k) is the number of partial derangements of  $X_n$  all of whose orbits are of size at most k. Then b(n, k) = b(n, n) if k > n, and it is clear that  $p\sigma(n, k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i} b(n-i, k)$ , since each subpermutation on  $X_n$  can be decomposed into a partial identity component and a partial derangement component. The following lemma is needed:

**Lemma 1.1** Let k be a positive integer. Then, a sequence  $(u_n)$  with  $u_0 = 1$  satisfies the recurrence relation

$$u_n = c_1 u_{n-1} + c_2 (n-1) u_{n-2} + \dots + c_k (n-1) (n-2) \dots (n-k+1) u_{n-k}$$

if and only if its exponential generating function is

$$\sum_{n>0} \frac{u_n}{n!} x^n = e^{c_1 x + c_2 x^2/2 + \dots + c_k x^k/k}.$$

*Proof.* Let the sequence  $(u_n)$  satisfy the above recurrence relation and let  $f(x) = \sum_{n\geq 0} \frac{u_n}{n!} x^n$ . Then

$$xf'(x) = \sum_{n\geq 1} \frac{u_n x^n}{(n-1)!} = c_1 x \sum_{n\geq 1} \frac{u_{n-1} x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} + c_2 x^2 \sum_{n\geq 2} \frac{u_{n-2} x^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} + \cdots + c_k x^k \sum_{n\geq k} \frac{u_{n-k} x^{n-k}}{(n-k)!}$$

$$= (c_1 x + c_2 x^2 + \dots + c_k x^k) f(x),$$
i. e.,  $f'(x) = (c_1 + c_2 x + \dots + c_k x^{k-1}) f(x)$ . Integrating gives

$$f(x) = e^{c_1 x + c_2 x^2/2 + \dots + c_k x^k/k},$$

as required. The converse is easily proved by reversing the above steps.  $\Box$ 

# 2 Subpermutations with Fixed Orbit Size

**Proposition 2.1** Let  $p\sigma(n, k)$  be the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$  with orbit size at most k. Then the exponential generating function of  $p\sigma(n, k)$  is

$$e^{2x+3x^2/2+\cdots+(k+1)x^k/k}$$

*Proof.* For each partial derangement  $\alpha$  of  $X_n$  with all its orbits of size at most k, we consider two cases.

Case 1. n is in some j-cycle  $(2 \le j \le k)$ . Thus we have  $(n-1)b(n-2,k) + (n-1)(n-2)b(n-3,k) + \cdots + (n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)b(n-k,k)$ .

<u>Case 2.</u> n is not in any j-cycle. In this case either, n is not in any path or n is in a path size 2 or 3 or  $\cdots$  or k, since there is a unique path of size 0, the empty path and no path of size 1. Thus we have  $b(n-1,k)+2(n-1)b(n-2,k)+\cdots+k(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)b(n-k,k)$ , such maps in this

We therefore obtain

case.

$$b(n,k) = b(n-1,k) + 3(n-1)b(n-2,k) + \cdots + (k+1)(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)b(n-k,k).$$

By Lemma 1.1, we infer that  $g_k(x)$ , the exponential generating function of b(n, k) is

$$g_k(x) = e^{x+3x^2/2+ \cdots + (k+1)x^k/k}.$$

Now using the fact (mentioned above) that

$$p\sigma(n,k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} {n \choose i} b(n-i,k),$$

we see that the exponential generating function of  $p\sigma(n,k)$  is

$$e^{2x+3x^2/2+\cdots+(k+1)x^k/k}$$

as required.

Using Lemma 1.1 it is not difficult to deduce the following recurrence relation for  $p\sigma(n,k)$ :

**Proposition 2.2** Let  $p\sigma(n,k)$  be the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$  with orbit size at most k. Then for  $n \geq k \geq 2$ ,  $p\sigma(n,k)$  satisfies the recurrence relation

$$p\sigma(n,k) = 2p\sigma(n-1,k) + 3(n-1)p\sigma(n-2,k) + \cdots + (k+1)(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)p\sigma(n-k,k),$$

where  $p\sigma(n,0) = 1$ ,  $p\sigma(n,1) = 2^n$  and  $p\sigma(n,n+r) = p\sigma(n,n)$  for all nonnegative r.

**Proposition 2.3** Let  $p\sigma(n,k)$  be the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$  with orbit size at most k. Then

$$p\sigma(n,k) = \sum_{n_1+2n_2+\cdots+kn_k=n} \frac{2^{n_1}(\frac{3}{2})^{n_2}\cdots(\frac{k+1}{k})^{n_k}n!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!},$$

where  $n_1, n_2, \cdots, n_k \geq 0$ .

*Proof.* Let the exponential generating function of  $p\sigma(n,k)$  be g(x). Then

$$g(x) = \sum_{n\geq 0} \frac{p\sigma(n,k)x^n}{n!} = e^{2x} \cdot e^{3x^2/2} \cdot \dots \cdot e^{(k+1)x^k/k}$$
$$= \sum_{n_1+2n_2+\dots+kn_k=n} \frac{2^{n_1}(\frac{3}{2})^{n_2} \cdot \dots \cdot (\frac{k+1}{k})^{n_k}x^n}{n_1!n_2! \cdot \dots \cdot n_k!}.$$

Hence

$$p\sigma(n,k) = \sum_{\substack{n_1+2n_2+\cdots+kn_k=n}} \frac{2^{n_1}(\frac{3}{2})^{n_2}\cdots(\frac{k+1}{k})^{n_k}n!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!}$$

where  $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_k \geq 0$ .

Cameron [2, pp. 69–60] proved that for n > 1,  $\sigma(n, 2)$  is even and  $\sigma(n, 2) > \sqrt{(n!)}$ . We have similar results for  $p\sigma(n, k)$ .

**Lemma 2.4** Let  $p\sigma(n, k)$  be the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$  with orbit size at most k. Then

$$p\sigma(n,k)$$
 is  $\left\{ egin{array}{l} \mbox{even if $n$ is odd,} \mbox{odd if $n$ is even.} \end{array} \right.$ 

*Proof.* First observe that from the recurrence (in Proposition 2.2)  $p\sigma(n,k)$  is clearly even if n is odd. However, if n is even, then for  $k \geq 2$ 

$$p\sigma(n,k) \equiv p\sigma(n-2,k) \equiv p\sigma(2,k) \equiv p\sigma(2,2) = 7 \pmod{2},$$
 that is,  $p\sigma(n,k)$  is odd.

**Proposition 2.5** Let  $\nu(n,k)$  be the number of nilpotents of  $I_n$  with nilpotency index at most k. Then the exponential generating function of  $\nu(n,k)$  is

$$\sum_{n>0} \nu(n,k) \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^{x+x^2 + \dots + x^k}.$$

*Proof.* Decomposing a subpermutation  $\alpha$  of  $X_n$  all of whose orbits are of size at most k into a (full) permutation component and a nilpotent component, we obtain that

$$p\sigma(n,k) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} \sigma(i,k) \nu(n-i,k).$$

Now from Eqn.(1) and Proposition 2.1, we see that the exponential generating function of  $\nu(n,k)$  is

$$e^{2x+3x^2/2+\cdots+(k+1)x^k/k-(x+x^2/2+\cdots+x^k/k)}=e^{x+x^2+\cdots+x^k},$$

as required.

Corollary 2.6 [13, A000262]. The exponential generating function for the number of nilpotent subpermutations of  $X_n$  is  $e^{x+x^2+x^3+\cdots}=e^{x/(1-x)}$ 

Again, using Lemma 1.1 it is not difficult to deduce the following recurrence relation for  $\nu(n, k)$ :

**Proposition 2.7** Let  $\nu(n, k)$  be the number of nilpotents of  $I_n$  with nilpotency index at most k. Then for  $n \geq k \geq 2$ ,  $\nu(n, k)$  satisfies the recurrence relation

$$\nu(n,k) = \nu(n-1,k) + 2(n-1)\nu(n-2,k) + \cdots + k(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)\nu(n-k,k),$$

with  $\nu(n, 1) = 1$  and  $\nu(n, n+r) = \nu(n, n)$  for all nonnegative r.

Using the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 2.3 we obtain the following corresponding result.

**Lemma 2.8** For  $n \geq 0$ , we have

$$\nu(n,k) = n! \sum_{n_1+2n_2+\cdots+kn_k=n} \frac{1}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!} \\
= \sum_{n_1+2n_2+\cdots+kn_k=n} \binom{n_1+n_2+\cdots+n_k}{n_1,n_2,\ldots,n_k} \frac{n!}{(n_1+n_2+\cdots+n_k)!},$$

where  $n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_k \geq 0$ .

**Lemma 2.9** For  $n \ge k \ge 2$  we have  $n(n-1)|\nu(n,k)-1$ .

*Proof.* From the expression for  $\nu(n,k)$  in Lemma 2.8, we see that if  $n_1 \neq n$  then  $2n_2 + 3n_3 + \cdots + kn_k \geq 1$ , that is,

$$2(n_2 + n_3 + \cdots) + n_3 + 2n_4 + \cdots + (k-2)n_k \ge 1.$$

So, if  $k \geq 2$ 

$$2(n_2 + n_3 + \cdots) + n_3 + 2n_4 + \cdots + (k-2)n_k \ge 2,$$

which implies  $n - (n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_k) \ge 2$ . Hence  $\frac{n!}{(n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_k)!}$  is divisible by n(n-1).

If  $n_1 = n$  then we get the first term in the sum expression for  $\nu(n, k)$  equals to 1. This implies that if  $k \ge 2$  then  $n(n-1)|\nu(n, k) - 1$ .

Using the above lemma and the fact that if k=2, we have  $i(n,2)=\nu(n,2)-1$ , we see that for  $k\geq 3$ ,

$$i(n,k) = \nu(n,k) - \nu(n,k-1) = (\nu(n,k)-1) - (\nu(n,k-1)-1),$$

where all terms on the right hand side are divisible by n(n-1). Hence, for all  $k \geq 2$ , we see that n(n-1)|i(n,k). Thus, we have proved the following:

**Proposition 2.10** Let i(n, k) be the number of nilpotents in  $I_n$  of index exactly k. Then for all  $k \geq 2$ , we have that n(n-1)|i(n, k). In particular, for all  $k \geq 2$ , i(n, k) is always even.

**Proposition 2.11** Let i(n, k) be the number of nilpotents in  $I_n$  of index exactly k. Then i(n, 1) = 1, i(n, n + r) = i(n, n) for all nonnegative r, and for  $n \ge k \ge 2$ , i(n, k) satisfies the recurrence relation  $i(n, k) = i(n - 1, k) + 2(n - 1)i(n - 2, k) + \cdots + k(n - 1) \cdots (n - k + 1)i(n - k, k)$ .

*Proof.* This follows from the obvious fact that  $i(n, k) = \nu(n, k) - \nu(n, k - 1)$ , for  $k \ge 2$  and Proposition 2.7.

Remark 2.12 The triangular arrays of numbers b(n, k),  $p\sigma(n, k)$ ,  $\nu(n, k)$  and i(n, k) are as at the time of submitting this paper not in Sloane [13]. However, b(n, n) is [13, A144085];  $p\sigma(n, n)$  is [13, A002720];  $\nu(n, n)$  is [13, A000262]; and i(n, n) is [13, A000142].

$n \setminus k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\sum b(n,k)$
0	1							1
1	1	1						2
2	1	1	4					6
3	1	1	10	18				30
4	1	1	46	78	108			234
5	1	1	94	486	636	780		1998
6	1	1	784	3096	4896	5760	6600	21138

Table 2.1 Some computed values for b(n, k)

$n \setminus k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\Sigma p\sigma(n,k)$
0	1							1
1	1	2						3
2	1	4	7					12
3	1	8	26	34				69
4	1	16	115	179	209			520
5	1	32	542	1102	1402	1546		4625
6	1	64	2809	7609	10759	12487	13327	47056

Table 2.2 Some computed values for  $p\sigma(n, k)$ 

$n \setminus k$	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\Sigma  u(n,k)$
1	1						1
2	1	3					4
3	1	7	13				21
4	1	25	49	73			148
5	1	81	261	381	501		1225
6	1	331	1531	2611	3331	4051	11856

Table 2.3 Some computed values for  $\nu(n,k)$ 

$n \setminus k$	1	2	3	4	5	6	$\sum i(n,k)$
1	1						1
2	1	2					3
3	1	6	6				13
4	1	24	24	24			73
5	1	80	180	120	120		501
6	1	330	1200	1080	720	720	4051

Table 2.4 Some computed values for i(n, k)

# 3 An Inequality and Asymptotic Result

In this section we prove results for  $p\sigma(n,2)$  analogous to those for  $\sigma(n,2)$  from [2] and [14].

**Proposition 3.1** For 
$$n \ge 4$$
,  $p\sigma(n,2) > 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-1} \sqrt{n!}$ 

*Proof.* The proof is by induction. First note that  $6(3/2)^3(\sqrt{4!}) = \frac{3^4\sqrt{6}}{2} < 115 = p\sigma(4,2)$  and  $6(3/2)^4\sqrt{5!} = \frac{3^5\sqrt{30}}{4} < 542 = p\sigma(5,2)$ . Now consider

$$p\sigma(n,2) = 2p\sigma(n-1,2) + 3(n-1)p\sigma(n-2,2)$$

$$> 2 \cdot 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-2}\sqrt{(n-1)!} + 3(n-1) \cdot 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-3}\sqrt{(n-2)!}$$

$$= 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-3}[3\sqrt{(n-1)!} + 3\sqrt{n-1}\sqrt{(n-1)!}]$$

$$= 3 \cdot 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-3}\sqrt{(n-1)!}[1 + \sqrt{n-1}]$$

$$> 3 \cdot 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-3}\sqrt{n!}$$

$$> 6(\frac{3}{2})^{n-1}\sqrt{n!},$$

as required. Note that we have used the following inequality:  $\sqrt{n} < 1 + \sqrt{n-1}$ .

Proposition 3.2 For  $n \geq 2$ , we have

$$p\sigma(n,2) \equiv \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 \ (mod \ 6) & \emph{if $n$ is even,} \\ 2 \ (mod \ 6) & \emph{if $n$ is odd.} \end{array} 
ight.$$

*Proof.* From the recurrence

$$p\sigma(n+1,2) - p\sigma(n-1,2) = 3(n+1)p\sigma(n-1,2) + 6(n-1)p\sigma(n-2,2),$$

we see that  $p\sigma(n+1,2) \equiv (3n+4)p\sigma(n-1,2) \pmod{6}$ . Now, if n is odd then  $p\sigma(n+1,2) \equiv p\sigma(n-1,2) \pmod{6}$ , and if n is even then  $p\sigma(n+1,2) \equiv 4p\sigma(n-1,2) \pmod{6}$ . But  $p\sigma(1,2) = 2$ , and so  $p\sigma(n,2) \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$ , for all n odd. Also  $p\sigma(2,2) = 7$ , and so  $p\sigma(n,2) \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ , for all n even.

It is known that  $\sigma(n,2)$ , the number of involutions in  $S_n$ , satisfies

$$\sigma(n,2) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} n^{n/2} e^{-n/2 + \sqrt{n-1/4}},$$

as  $n \to \infty$ , [14, (5.4.14)]. This asymptotic formula can be obtained using Hayman's method, see for example, Wilf [14]. The same method can be applied to obtain a similar result for  $p\sigma(n,2)$ . However, we need the following special case of a more general result due to Hayman, see Wilf [14].

**Theorem 3.3** Let  $f(z) = e^{p(z)}$ , where p(z) is a nonconstant polynomial with nonnegative real coefficients. Then the coefficients  $a_n$  of the Taylor series of f(z) satisfy

$$a(n) \sim (2\pi (rp'(r) + r^2p''(r)))^{-1/2}e^{p(r)}r^{-n},$$

as  $n \to \infty$ , where r is the positive real root of rp'(r) = n.

Combined with Stirling's approximation formula:

$$n! \sim (\frac{n}{e})^n \sqrt{2\pi n},$$

as  $n \to \infty$ , the above theorem gives the result:

$$p\sigma(n,2) \sim \frac{e^{r-n/2}}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{n}{r}\right)^n \sqrt{\frac{1}{1-\frac{r}{n}}},$$

where  $r = \frac{\sqrt{1+3n}-1}{3}$  is the positive root of rp'(r) = n with  $p(r) = 2r + 3r^2/2$ . Now since  $\frac{r}{n} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ , we obtain after some routine manipulation the following result.

**Proposition 3.4** Let  $p\sigma(n,2)$  be the number of subpermutations of  $X_n$  with orbit size at most 2. Then as  $n \to \infty$ , we have

$$p\sigma(n,2) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}e^{r-n/2}(\sqrt{1+3n}+1)^n,$$

where  $r = \frac{\sqrt{1+3n}-1}{3}$ .

An element  $\alpha$  in  $I_n$  is called a *quasi-idempotent* if  $\alpha^4 = \alpha^2$ , that is,  $\alpha^2$  is an idempotent. Clearly all idempotents and involutions are quasi-idempotents. We have

**Proposition 3.5** The number of quasi-idempotents in  $I_n$  is  $p\sigma(n,2)$ .

Proof. We show that  $\alpha$  in  $I_n$  is a quasi-idempotent if and only if all the orbits of  $\alpha$  are of size at most 2. If  $\alpha$  has a 3-cycle say,  $(a_1a_2a_3)$  then clearly  $\alpha^2$  contains the 3-cycle  $(a_1a_3a_2)$  and so  $\alpha^2$  is not an idempotent, that is,  $\alpha$  is not a quasi-idempotent. Similarly, if  $\alpha$  has a simple path of length 3 say,  $(a_1a_2a_3]$  then clearly  $\alpha^2$  contains the path  $(a_1a_3]$  and so  $\alpha^2$  is not an idempotent, that is,  $\alpha$  is again, not a quasi-idempotent. The converse is clear.

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