POWER SUM IDENTITIES WITH GENERALIZED STIRLING NUMBERS

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ABSTRACT. We prove several combinatorial identities involving Stirling functions of the second kind with a complex variable. The identities also involve Stirling numbers of the first kind, binomial coefficients and harmonic numbers.

1. INTRODUCTION

Butzer, Kilbas and Trujillo [2] defined the Stirling functions of the second kind by

$$S(\alpha, k) = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{j=1}^{k} (-1)^{k-j} \binom{k}{j} j^{\alpha},$$
(1.1)

for all complex numbers $\alpha \neq 0$ and all positive integers k. This definition is consistent with the definition given by Flajolet and Prodinger [5]. When $\alpha = n$ is a positive integer, S(n,k)are the classical Stirling numbers of the second kind [3]. The purpose of this note is to prove the five power sum identities (2.3), (2.14), (2.17), (2.20) and (2.21) below involving the Stirling functions $S(\alpha, k)$. In fact, we describe a general method for obtaining such identities.

Recall that the *binomial transform* of a sequence a_1, a_2, \ldots is a new sequence b_1, b_2, \ldots , such that for every positive integer k,

$$b_k = \sum_{j=1}^k (-1)^{k-j} \binom{k}{j} a_j, \text{ with inversion } a_k = \sum_{j=1}^k \binom{k}{j} b_j \tag{1.2}$$

[8, (5.48), p. 192], [9, 10]. In equation (1.2), we tacitly assume that $a_0 = b_0 = 0$. Equation (1.1) shows that the sequences $k!S(\alpha, k)$ and k^{α} are related by the binomial transform. The inversion formula then yields

$$k^{\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \binom{k}{j} j! S(\alpha, j), \qquad (1.3)$$

for any positive integer k.

2. The Identities

We start with a simple lemma.

Lemma 2.1. Let c_1, c_2, \ldots , be a sequence of complex numbers. Then for every positive integer m we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{\alpha} c_{k} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(\alpha, j) \sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} c_{k}.$$
(2.1)

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Proof. For the proof we just need to use (1.3) for k^{α} and then change the order of summation on the right hand side

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{\alpha} c_{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} c_{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \binom{k}{j} j! S(\alpha, j) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(\alpha, j) \sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} c_{k}.$$
 (2.2)

This lemma helps to generate power sum identities by using various upper summation identities. We present here five examples arranged in four propositions.

Proposition 2.2. For every positive integer m and every two complex numbers $\alpha \neq 0$, x,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{\alpha} x^{k} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(\alpha, j) \sigma(x, m, j),$$
(2.3)

where $\sigma(x, m, j)$ is the (upper summation) polynomial

$$\sigma(x,m,j) = \sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} x^k = x^j \sum_{r=0}^{m-j} \binom{r+j}{j} x^r.$$
(2.4)

In particular, when x = 1 one has

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \binom{m+1}{j+1} j! S(\alpha, j).$$
(2.5)

Proof. We use the lemma with $c_k = x^k$. When x = 1 we use the upper summation identity

$$\sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} = \binom{m+1}{j+1}$$
(2.6)

(see, for instance, [7, 1.52] or [8, p. 174]). Thus (2.3) turns into (2.5).

Remark 2.3. Identity (2.5) was proved in [2] in the equivalent form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \binom{m}{j} (j-1)! S(\alpha+1,j)$$
(2.7)

by induction. The equivalence follows from the properties

$$S(\alpha + 1, k) = kS(\alpha, k) + S(\alpha, k - 1)$$
(2.8)

(see [2, 1.16]), and the well-known binomial identity [8, p. 174],

$$\binom{m}{k} + \binom{m}{k-1} = \binom{m+1}{k}.$$
(2.9)

Remark 2.4. With complex powers $\alpha \neq 0$ as in (2.3) we have the flexibility to write

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{x^k}{k^{\alpha}} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(-\alpha, j) \sigma(x, m, j).$$
(2.10)

When $\alpha = n$ is a positive integer, identity (2.5) (or (2.7), to that matter) is well-known and has a long history. In the early 18th century, Bernoulli evaluated $\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^n$ in terms of the numbers known today as Bernoulli numbers. Continuing Bernoulli's work, Leonard

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Euler [4, paragraphs 173, 176] evaluated sums of the form $\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^n x^k$, essentially by applying n times the operator $x \frac{d}{dx}$ to the identity

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} x^{k} = \frac{1}{1-x} - \frac{x^{m+1}}{1-x}$$
(2.11)

 $(x \neq 1)$. This led him to the discovery of a special sequence of polynomials $A_k(x)$ called today Eulerian polynomials [1, 3, 6]. In terms of these polynomials one has

$$\left(x\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{n}\frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{A_{n}(x)}{(1-x)^{n+1}}, \qquad n = 0, 1, \dots,$$
 (2.12)

and therefore, with some help from the Leibniz rule

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} k^{n} x^{k} = \frac{A_{n}(x)}{(1-x)^{n+1}} - x^{m+1} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} \frac{(m+1)^{n-k} A_{k}(x)}{(1-x)^{k+1}}.$$
(2.13)

This identity, however, cannot be extended to complex powers $n \to \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ for obvious reasons.

The next identity can be viewed as the binomial transform of the sequence $k^{\alpha}x^{k}$ extending equation (1.1).

Proposition 2.5. For every positive integer m and every two complex numbers $\alpha \neq 0, x$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \binom{m}{k} k^{\alpha} x^{k} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \binom{m}{j} j! S(\alpha, j) x^{j} (1+x)^{m-j}.$$
(2.14)

Proof. We apply the lemma with $c_k = \binom{m}{k} x^k$. The result then follows from the interesting identity

$$\sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{m}{k} \binom{k}{j} x^k = \binom{m}{j} x^j (1+x)^{m-j},$$
(2.15)

which is listed as number 3.118 on p. 36 in [7]. To prove this identity one can start by reducing both sides by x^j and then expanding $(1 + x)^{m-j}$.

Note that when x = -1, (2.14) turns into (1.1).

Remark 2.6. Identity (2.14) for positive integers $\alpha = r$ can also be found in the treasure chest [7]. It is listed there (as number 1.126 on p.16) in the form

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} k^{r} x^{k} = (1+x)^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{r} (-1)^{j} \binom{n}{j} \frac{x^{j}}{(1+x)^{j}} \sum_{k=0}^{j} (-1)^{k} \binom{j}{k} k^{r}.$$
 (2.16)

Note that in (2.16) the number r has to be a positive integer, because it stands for the upper limit of the first sum on the RHS. For the case x = 1, (2.16) was recently rediscovered by Spivey [10].

The next identity involves the unsigned Stirling numbers of the first kind $\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ [8].

Proposition 2.7. For every positive integer m and every complex $\alpha \neq 0$ we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \begin{bmatrix} m \\ k \end{bmatrix} k^{\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(\alpha, j) \begin{bmatrix} m+1 \\ j+1 \end{bmatrix}.$$
(2.17)

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Proof. The proof uses the lemma with $c_k = \begin{bmatrix} m \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ and also the upper summation identity [8, (6.16), p. 265]

$$\sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} \begin{bmatrix} m\\k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m+1\\j+1 \end{bmatrix}.$$
(2.18)

We finish this note with two identities involving the harmonic numbers

$$H_k = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{k}, \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots).$$
 (2.19)

Proposition 2.8. For every positive integer m and every complex power $\alpha \neq 0$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} H_k k^{\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(\alpha, j) \binom{m+1}{j+1} \left(H_{m+1} - \frac{1}{j+1} \right), \qquad (2.20)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{k^{\alpha}}{m-k+1} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} j! S(\alpha, j) \binom{m+1}{j} (H_{m+1} - H_j).$$
(2.21)

Proof. This follows from the lemma with $c_k = H_k$ and $c_k = \frac{1}{m-k+1}$ correspondingly and also from the two upper summation identities [8, (6.70), p. 280 and p. 354],

$$\sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} H_k = \binom{m+1}{j+1} \left(H_{m+1} - \frac{1}{j+1} \right)$$
(2.22)

$$\sum_{k=j}^{m} \binom{k}{j} \frac{1}{m-k+1} = \binom{m+1}{j} (H_{m+1} - H_j).$$
(2.23)

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