# Some combinatorial arrays related to the Lotka-Volterra system 

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#### Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate several context-free grammars suggested by the Lotka-Volterra system. Some combinatorial arrays, involving the Stirling numbers of the second kind and Eulerian numbers, are generated by these context-free grammars. In particular, we present grammatical characterization of some statistics on cyclically ordered partitions.


Keywords: Lotka-Volterra system; Context-free grammars; Cyclically ordered partitions; Eulerian numbers

## 1 Introduction

Throughout this paper a context-free grammar is in the sense of Chen [4]: for an alphabet $A$, let $\mathbb{Q}[[A]]$ be the rational commutative ring of formal power series in monomials formed from letters in $A$. A context-free grammar over A is a function $G: A \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}[[A]]$ that replace

[^0]a letter in $A$ by a formal function over $A$. The formal derivative $D$ is a linear operator defined with respect to a context-free grammar $G$. More precisely, the derivative $D=D_{G}$ : $\mathbb{Q}[[A]] \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}[[A]]$ is defined as follows: for $x \in A$, we have $D(x)=G(x)$; for a monomial $u$ in $\mathbb{Q}[[A]], D(u)$ is defined so that $D$ is a derivation, and for a general element $q \in \mathbb{Q}[[A]]$, $D(q)$ is defined by linearity.

Let $[n]=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. The Stirling number of the second kind $\left\{\begin{array}{l}n \\ k\end{array}\right\}$ is the number of ways to partition $[n]$ into $k$ blocks. Let $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ be the symmetric group of all permutations of $[n]$. A descent of a permutation $\pi \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}$ is a position $i$ such that $\pi(i)>\pi(i+1)$. Denote by des $(\pi)$ the number of descents of $\pi$. The Eulerian number $\left\langle\begin{array}{l}n \\ k\end{array}\right\rangle$ is the number of permutations in $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ with $k-1$ descents, where $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n$ (see [15, A008292]). Let us now recall two classical results.

Proposition 1 ([4, Eq. 4.8]). For $A=\{x, y\}$ and $G=\{x \rightarrow x y, y \rightarrow y\}$, we have

$$
D^{n}(x)=x \sum_{k=1}^{n}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right\} y^{k} \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 1
$$

Proposition 2 ([6, Section 2.1]). For $A=\{x, y\}$ and $G=\{x \rightarrow x y, y \rightarrow x y\}$, we have

$$
D^{n}(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left\langle\begin{array}{l}
n \\
k
\end{array}\right\rangle x^{k} y^{n-k+1} \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 1
$$

One of the most commonly used models of two species predator-prey interaction is the classical Lotka-Volterra system:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d x}{d t}=x(a-b y), \frac{d y}{d t}=y(-c+d x) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $y(t)$ and $x(t)$ represent, respectively, the predator population and the prey population as functions of time, and $a, b, c, d$ are positive constants. The differential system (1) is ubiquitous and arises often in mathematical ecology, dynamical system theory and other branches of mathematics (see [2, 3]).

Motivated by (1), we shall consider context-free grammars of the form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\{x, y\}, G=\{x \rightarrow x+p(x, y), y \rightarrow y+q(x, y)\}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $p(x, y)$ and $q(x, y)$ are polynomials in $x$ and $y$. For convenience, we shall call

$$
G^{\prime}=\{x \rightarrow p(x, y), y \rightarrow q(x, y)\}
$$

the ancestor of $G$.
This paper is a continuation of $[4,6,12]$. Throughout this paper, arrays are indexed by $n, i$ and $j$. Call $\left(a_{n, i, j}\right)$ a combinatorial array if the numbers $a_{n, i, j}$ are nonnegative integers. For any function $H(x, p, q)$, we denote by $H_{y}$ the partial derivative of $H$ with respect to $y$, where $y \in\{x, p, q\}$. In the next section, we present grammatical characterization of some statistics on cyclically ordered partitions.

## 2 Some permutation statistics on cyclically ordered partitions

Recall that a partition $\pi$ of [ $n$ ], written $\pi \vdash[n]$, is a collection of disjoint and nonempty subsets $B_{1}, B_{2}, \ldots, B_{k}$ of $[n]$ such that $\bigcup_{i=1}^{k} B_{i}=[n]$, where each $B_{i}(1 \leqslant i \leqslant k)$ is called a block of $\pi$. A cyclically ordered partition of $[n]$ is a partition of $[n]$ whose blocks are endowed with a cyclic order. We always use a canonical representation for cyclically ordered partitions, where the block containing 1 comes first and the integers in each block are in increasing order. For example, (123), (12)(3), (13)(2), (1)(23), (1)(2)(3), (1)(3)(2) are all cyclically ordered partitions of [3]. The opener of a block is its least element. For example, the list of openers of $(13)(2)$ and $(1)(3)(2)$ are respectively given by 12 and 132. In this section, we shall study some statistics on the list of openers.

### 2.1 Descent statistic

Consider the grammar

$$
\begin{equation*}
G=\{x \rightarrow x+x y, y \rightarrow y+x y\} . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The combinatorial context for the ancestor $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ has been given in Proposition 2.
From (3), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(x) & =x+x y \\
D^{2}(x) & =x+3 x y+x y^{2}+x^{2} y \\
D^{3}(x) & =x+7 x y+6 x y^{2}+x y^{3}+6 x^{2} y+4 x^{2} y^{2}+x^{3} y
\end{aligned}
$$

For $n \geqslant 0$, we define $D^{n}(x)=\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} a_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}$. Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
D^{n+1}(x) & =D\left(\sum_{i, j} a_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i, j}(i+j) a_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}+\sum_{i, j} i a_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j+1}+\sum_{i, j} j a_{n, i, j} x^{i+1} y^{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{n+1, i, j}=(i+j) a_{n, i, j}+i a_{n, i, j-1}+j a_{n, i-1, j} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i, j \geqslant 1$, with the initial conditions $a_{0, i, j}$ to be 1 if $(i, j)=(1,0)$, and to be 0 otherwise. Clearly, $a_{n, 1,0}=1$ and $a_{n, i, 0}=0$ for $i \geqslant 2$.

Example 3. The following table contains the values of $a_{4, i, j}$.

| $\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathbf{4}, \mathbf{i}, \boldsymbol{j}}$ | $j=0$ | $j=1$ | $j=2$ | $j=3$ | $j=4$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $i=1$ | 1 | 15 | 25 | 10 | 1 |
| $i=2$ | 0 | 25 | 40 | 11 | 0 |
| $i=3$ | 0 | 10 | 11 | 0 | 0 |
| $i=4$ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Define

$$
A=A(x, p, q)=\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} a_{n, i, j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} p^{i} q^{j} .
$$

We now present the first main result of this paper.
Theorem 4. The generating function $A$ is given by

$$
A=\frac{p(p-q) e^{x}}{p-q e^{(p-q)\left(e^{x}-1\right)}}
$$

Moreover, for all $n, i, j \geqslant 1$,

$$
a_{n, i, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n+1  \tag{5}\\
i+j
\end{array}\right\}\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
i+j-1 \\
i
\end{array}\right\rangle .
$$

Proof. By rewriting (4) in terms of generating function $A$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{x}=p(1+q) A_{p}+q(1+p) A_{q} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is routine to check that the generating function

$$
\widetilde{A}(x, p, q)=\frac{p(p-q) e^{x}}{p-q e^{(p-q)\left(e^{x}-1\right)}}
$$

satisfies (6). Also, this generating function gives $\widetilde{A}(0, p, q)=p, \widetilde{A}(x, p, 0)=p e^{x}$ and $\widetilde{A}(x, 0, q)=0$ with $q \neq 0$. Hence, $A=\widetilde{A}$. Now let us prove that $a_{n, i, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}n+1 \\ i+j\end{array}\right\}\left\langle\begin{array}{c}i+j-1 \\ i\end{array}\right\rangle$. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{d x} \sum_{n, i, k \geqslant 0} a_{n, i, k+1-i} \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} v^{i+1} w^{k} & =v \frac{d}{d x} \sum_{k \geqslant 0}\left(\sum_{n \geqslant k+1}\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n+1 \\
k+1
\end{array}\right\} \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \sum_{i=0}^{k}\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
k \\
i
\end{array}\right\rangle v^{i}\right) w^{k} \\
& =v \frac{d}{d x} \sum_{k \geqslant 0}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k}\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
k \\
i
\end{array}\right\rangle v^{i}\right) \frac{\left(e^{x}-1\right)^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} w^{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

By using the fact that

$$
\sum_{k \geqslant 0}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k}\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
k \\
i
\end{array}\right\rangle p^{i}\right) u^{k}=\int_{0}^{u} \frac{p-1}{p-e^{u^{\prime}(p-1)}} d u^{\prime}=\frac{1}{p}\left(u(p-1)-\ln \left(e^{u(p-1)}-p\right)+\ln (1-p)\right),
$$

we obtain that

$$
v \frac{d}{d x} \sum_{n, i, k \geqslant 0} a_{n, i, k+1-i} \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} v^{i} w^{k}=\frac{w v(v-1) e^{x}}{v-e^{\left(e^{x}-1\right) w(v-1)}},
$$

which implies

$$
A(x, v w, w)=\frac{w v(v-1) e^{x}}{v-e^{\left(e^{x}-1\right) w(v-1)}}
$$

as required.

Let $a_{n}=\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} a_{n, i, j}$. Clearly, $a_{n}=\sum_{k=0}^{n} k!\left\{\begin{array}{c}n+1 \\ k+1\end{array}\right\}$.
Proposition 5. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}n \\ k\end{array}\right\}\left\langle\begin{array}{c}k-1 \\ i\end{array}\right\rangle$ is the number of cyclically ordered partitions of $[n]$ with $k$ blocks whose list of openers contains $i-1$ descents.

Proof. To form such a cyclically ordered partition, start with a partition of $[n]$ into $k$ blocks in canonical form, each block increasing and blocks arranged in order of increasing first entries (there are $\left\{\begin{array}{l}n \\ k\end{array}\right\}$ choices). The first opener is thus 1 . Then leave the first block in place and rearrange the $k-1$ remaining blocks so that their openers, viewed as a list, contain $i-1$ descents (there are $\left\langle\begin{array}{c}k-1 \\ i\end{array}\right\rangle$ choices).

We can now conclude the following corollary from the discussion above.
Corollary 6. For all $n, i, j \geqslant 1, a_{n, i, j}$ is the number of cyclically ordered partitions of $[n+1]$ with $i+j$ blocks whose list of openers contains $i-1$ descents.

### 2.2 Peak statistics

The idea of a peak (resp. valley) in a list of integers $\left(w_{i}\right)_{i=1}^{n}$ is an entry that is greater (resp. smaller) than its neighbors. The number of peaks in a permutation is an important combinatorial statistic. See, e.g., $[1,5,7,10]$ and the references therein. However, the question of whether the first and/or last entry may qualify as a peak (or valley) gives rise to several different definitions. In this paper, we consider only left peaks and right valleys. A left peak index is an index $i \in[n-1]$ such that $w_{i-1}<w_{i}>w_{i+1}$, where we take $w_{0}=0$, and the entry $w_{i}$ is a left peak. Similarly, a right valley is an entry $w_{i}$ with $i \in[2, n]$ such that $w_{i-1}>w_{i}<w_{i+1}$, where we take $w_{n+1}=\infty$. Thus the last entry may be a right valley but not a left peak. For example, the list 64713258 has 3 left peaks and 3 right valleys. Clearly, left peaks and right valleys in a list are equinumerous: they alternate with a peak first and a valley last. Peaks and valleys were considered in [7]. The left peak statistic first appeared in [1, Definition 3.1].

Let $P(n, k)$ be the number of permutations in $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ with $k$ left peaks. Let $P_{n}(x)=$ $\sum_{k \geqslant 0} P(n, k) x^{k}$. It is well known [15, A008971] that

$$
\begin{aligned}
P(x, z) & =1+\sum_{n \geqslant 1} P_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \\
& =\frac{\sqrt{1-x}}{\sqrt{1-x} \cosh (z \sqrt{1-x})-\sinh (z \sqrt{1-x})}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $D$ be the differential operator $\frac{d}{d \theta}$. Set $x=\sec \theta$ and $y=\tan \theta$. Then

$$
D(x)=x y, D(y)=x^{2} .
$$

Furthermore, if $G^{\prime}=\left\{x \rightarrow x y, y \rightarrow x^{2}\right\}$, then

$$
D_{G^{\prime}}^{n}(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor} P(n, k) x^{2 k+1} y^{n-2 k} \quad \text { for } n \geqslant 1,
$$

which was given in [10, Section 2]. There is a large literature devoted to the repeated differentiation of the secant and tangent functions (see [8, 9, 10, 11] for instance).

Consider the grammar

$$
\begin{equation*}
G=\left\{x \rightarrow x+x y, y \rightarrow y+x^{2}\right\} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (7), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(x) & =x+x y \\
D^{2}(x) & =x+3 x y+x y^{2}+x^{3} \\
D^{3}(x) & =x+7 x y+6 x y^{2}+x y^{3}+6 x^{3}+5 x^{3} y
\end{aligned}
$$

Define

$$
D^{n}(x)=\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} b_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j} .
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
D^{n+1}(x) & =D\left(\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} b_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i, j}(i+j) b_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}+\sum_{i, j} i b_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j+1}+\sum_{i, j} j b_{n, i, j} x^{i+2} y^{j-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{n+1, i, j}=(i+j) b_{n, i, j}+i b_{n, i, j-1}+(j+1) b_{n, i-2, j+1} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i \geqslant 1$ and $j \geqslant 0$, with the initial conditions $b_{0, i, j}$ to be 1 if $(i, j)=(1,0)$, and to be 0 otherwise. Clearly, $b_{n, 1,0}=1$ for $n \geqslant 1$.

Example 7. The following table contains the values of $b_{4, i, j}$.

| $\boldsymbol{b}_{\mathbf{4}, \mathbf{i}, \boldsymbol{j}}$ | $j=0$ | $j=1$ | $j=2$ | $j=3$ | $j=4$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $i=1$ | 1 | 15 | 25 | 10 | 1 |
| $i=3$ | 25 | 50 | 18 | 0 | 0 |
| $i=5$ | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Define

$$
B=B(x, p, q)=\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} b_{n, i, j} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} .
$$

We now present the second main result of this paper.
Theorem 8. The generating function $B$ is given by

$$
B(x, p, q)=\frac{p \sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}} e^{x}}{\sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}} \cosh \left(\sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}}\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right)-q \sinh \left(\sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}}\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right)} .
$$

Moreover, for all $n, i, j \geqslant 1$,

$$
b_{n, 2 i-1, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n+1  \tag{9}\\
2 i-1+j
\end{array}\right\} P(2 i-2+j, i-1) .
$$

Proof. The recurrence (8) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{x}=p(1+q) B_{p}+\left(p^{2}+q\right) B_{q} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is routine to check that the generating function

$$
\widetilde{B}=\widetilde{B}(x, p, q)=\frac{p \sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}} e^{x}}{\sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}} \cosh \left(\sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}}\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right)-q \sinh \left(\sqrt{q^{2}-p^{2}}\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right)}
$$

satisfies (10)). Also, this generating function gives $\widetilde{B}(0, p, q)=p$ and $\widetilde{B}(x, 0, q)=0$. Hence, $B=\widetilde{B}$.

It follows from (8) that $b_{n, 2 i, j}=0$ for all $(i, j) \neq(0,0)$. Now let us prove that

$$
b_{n, 2 i-1, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n+1 \\
2 i-1+j
\end{array}\right\} P(2 i-2+j, i-1)
$$

Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} b_{n, i, j+1-2 i} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} & =\sum_{n \geqslant 0, i, j \geqslant 1} b_{n, 2 i-1, j+1-2 i} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=p \sum_{n \geqslant 0, j \geqslant 1}\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n+1 \\
j
\end{array}\right\} P_{j-1}(p) q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} \\
& =p e^{x} \sum_{j \geqslant 1} \frac{\left(e^{x}-1\right)^{j-1}}{(j-1)!} P_{j-1}(p) q^{j}=p q e^{x} P\left(p, q\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence,

$$
\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} b_{n, i, j} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=p e^{x} P\left(p^{2} / q^{2}, q\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right)=B(x, p, q),
$$

as required.
Let $b_{n}=\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} b_{n, i, j}$. It follows from (9) that $b_{n}=a_{n}$. In the following discussion, we shall present a combinatorial interpretation for $b_{n, i, j}$.

Lemma 9. Suppose that $\left(w_{i}\right)_{i=1}^{k}$ is a list of distinct integers containing $\ell$ right valleys and that $w_{1}=1$. Then, among the $k$ ways to insert a new entry $m>\max \left(w_{i}\right)$ into the list in a noninitial position, $2 \ell+1$ of them will not change the number of right valleys and $k-(2 \ell+1)$ will increase it by 1 .

Proof. As observed above, peaks and valleys alternate, a peak occurring first, and a valley occurring last. Thus there are $\ell$ peaks. If $m$ is inserted immediately before or after a peak or at the very end, the number of valleys is unchanged, otherwise it is increased by 1 .

Proposition 10. The number $u_{n, k, \ell}$ of cyclically ordered partitions on $[n]$ with $k$ blocks and $\ell$ right valleys in the list of openers satisfies the recurrence

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{n, k, \ell}=k u_{n-1, k, \ell}+(2 \ell+1) u_{n-1, k-1, \ell}+(k-2 \ell) u_{n-1, k-1, \ell-1} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $n \geqslant 2, \ell \geqslant 0,2 \ell+1 \leqslant k \leqslant n$.

Proof. Each cyclically ordered partition of size $n$ is obtained by inserting $n$ into one of size $n-1$, either as the last entry in an existing block or as a new singleton block. Let $\mathcal{U}_{n, k, \ell}$ denote the set of cyclically ordered partitions counted by $u_{n, k, \ell}$. To obtain an element of $\mathcal{U}_{n, k, \ell}$ we can insert $n$ into any existing block of an element of $\mathcal{U}_{n-1, k, \ell}$ (this gives $k u_{n-1, k, \ell}$ choices ), or insert $n$ as a singleton block into an element of $\mathcal{U}_{n-1, k-1, \ell}$ so that the number of right valleys is unchanged (this gives $(2 \ell+1) u_{n-1, k-1, \ell}$ choices), or insert $n$ as a singleton block into an element of $\mathcal{U}_{n-1, k-1, \ell-1}$ so that the number of right valleys is increased by 1 (this gives $(k-2 \ell) u_{n-1, k-1, \ell-1}$ choices). The last two counts of choices follow from Lemma 9.

Corollary 11. For all $n, i, j \geqslant 1, b_{n, i, j}$ is the number of cyclically ordered partitions of $[n+1]$ with $i+j$ blocks and $\frac{i-1}{2}$ right valleys (equivalently, $\frac{i-1}{2}$ left peaks) in the list of openers.

Proof. Comparing recurrence relations (8) and (11), we see that $b_{n, i, j}=u_{n+1, i+j,(i-1) / 2}$.
Remark 12. A cyclically ordered partition of size $n$ with $k$ blocks and $\ell$ right valleys in the list of openers is obtained by selecting a partition of $[n]$ with $k$ blocks in $\left\{\begin{array}{l}n \\ k\end{array}\right\}$ ways, and then arranging the blocks suitably, in $P(k, \ell)$ ways. Hence $u_{n, k, \ell}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}n \\ k\end{array}\right\} P(k, \ell)$ and we get a combinatorial proof that $b_{n, 2 i-1, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}n+1 \\ 2 i-1+j\end{array}\right\} P(2 i-2+j, i-1)$.

### 2.3 The longest alternating subsequences

Let $\pi=\pi(1) \pi(2) \cdots \pi(n) \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}$. An alternating subsequence of $\pi$ is a subsequence $\pi\left(i_{1}\right) \cdots \pi\left(i_{k}\right)$ satisfying

$$
\pi\left(i_{1}\right)>\pi\left(i_{2}\right)<\pi\left(i_{3}\right)>\cdots \pi\left(i_{k}\right) .
$$

Let as ( $\pi$ ) be the length (number of terms) of the longest alternating subsequence of $\pi$. Denote by $a_{k}(n)$ the number of permutations $\pi$ in $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ such that as $(\pi)=k$. The study of the distribution of the length of the longest alternating subsequences of permutations was recently initiated by Stanley [16].

Let $L_{n}(x)=\sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k}(n) x^{k}$, and let

$$
L(x, z)=\sum_{n \geqslant 0} L_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!} .
$$

Stanley [16, Theorem 2.3] obtained the following closed-form formula:

$$
L(x, z)=(1-x) \frac{1+\rho+2 x e^{\rho z}+(1-\rho) e^{2 \rho z}}{1+\rho-x^{2}+\left(1-\rho-x^{2}\right) e^{2 \rho z}},
$$

where $\rho=\sqrt{1-x^{2}}$.
Let $\pi=\pi(1) \pi(2) \cdots \pi(n) \in \mathfrak{S}_{n}$. We say that $\pi$ changes direction at position $i$ if either $\pi(i-1)<\pi(i)>\pi(i+1)$, or $\pi(i-1)>\pi(i)<\pi(i+1)$, where $i \in\{2,3, \ldots, n-1\}$. We say that $\pi$ has $k$ alternating runs if there are $k-1$ indices $i$ such that $\pi$ changes direction
at these positions. The up-down runs of a permutation $\pi$ are the alternating runs of $\pi$ endowed with a 0 in the front. For example, the permutation $\pi=514632$ has 3 alternating runs and 4 up-down runs. One can easily verify that $a_{k}(n)$ also counts permutations in $\mathfrak{S}_{n}$ with $k$ up-down runs. It follows from [13, Corollary 8] that

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(x, z)=-\sqrt{\frac{x-1}{x+1}}\left(\frac{\sqrt{x^{2}-1}+x \sin \left(z \sqrt{x^{2}-1}\right)}{1-x \cos \left(z \sqrt{x^{2}-1}\right)}\right) . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Set $P_{0}(x)=L_{0}(x)=1$. There is a closely connection between the polynomials $P_{n}(x)$ and $L_{n}(x)$ (see [13, Corollary 7]):

$$
L_{n+1}(x)=x \sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k} L_{k}(x) P_{n-k}\left(x^{2}\right) .
$$

We now present a grammatical characterization of the numbers $a_{k}(n)$.
Proposition 13 ([13, Theorem 6]). For $A=\{w, x, y\}$ and $G^{\prime}=\{w \rightarrow w x, x \rightarrow x y, y \rightarrow$ $\left.x^{2}\right\}$, we have

$$
D_{G^{\prime}}^{n}(w)=w \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_{k}(n) x^{k} y^{n-k} .
$$

Consider the grammar

$$
\begin{equation*}
G=\left\{w \rightarrow w+w x, x \rightarrow x+x y, y \rightarrow y+x^{2}\right\} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the descendant of $G^{\prime}$ introduced in Proposition 13. From (13), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
D(w) & =w(1+x) \\
D^{2}(w) & =w\left(1+3 x+x y+x^{2}\right) \\
D^{3}(w) & =w\left(1+7 x+6 x y+x y^{2}+6 x^{2}+3 x^{2} y+2 x^{3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Define

$$
D^{n}(w)=w \sum_{i, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j} .
$$

Since

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D^{n+1}(w) \\
& =D\left(w \sum_{i, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i, j}(1+i+j) t_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j}+\sum_{i, j} t_{n, i, j} x^{i+1} y^{j}+\sum_{i, j} i t_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j+1}+\sum_{i, j} j t_{n, i, j} x^{i+2} y^{j-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{n+1, i, j}=(1+i+j) t_{n, i, j}+t_{n, i-1, j}+i t_{n, i, j-1}+(j+1) t_{n, i-2, j+1} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $i, j \geqslant 0$, with the initial conditions $t_{0, i, j}$ to be 1 if $(i, j)=(0,0)$ or $(i, j)=(1,0)$, and to be 0 otherwise. Clearly, $t_{n, 0,0}=1$ for $n \geqslant 0$.

Example 14. The following table contains the values of $t_{4, i, j}$.

| $\boldsymbol{t}_{4, i, j}$ | $j=0$ | $j=1$ | $j=2$ | $j=3$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $i=0$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $i=1$ | 15 | 25 | 10 | 1 |
| $i=2$ | 25 | 30 | 7 | 0 |
| $i=3$ | 20 | 11 | 0 | 0 |
| $i=4$ | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Define

$$
T=T(x, p, q)=\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} .
$$

We now present the following.
Theorem 15. The generating function $T$ is given by

$$
T(x, p, q)=e^{x} \sqrt{\frac{p-q}{p+q}} \frac{\sqrt{p^{2}-q^{2}}+p \sin \left(\left(e^{x}-1\right) \sqrt{p^{2}-q^{2}}\right)}{p \cos \left(\left(e^{x}-1\right) \sqrt{p^{2}-q^{2}}\right)-q} .
$$

Moreover, for all $n \geqslant 1, i \geqslant 1$ and $j \geqslant 0$,

$$
t_{n, i, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}
n+1  \tag{15}\\
i+j+1
\end{array}\right\} a_{i}(i+j) .
$$

Proof. The recurrence (14) can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{x}=T+p(1+q) T_{p}+\left(p^{2}+q\right) T_{q} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is routine to check that the generating function

$$
\widetilde{T}=\widetilde{T}(x, p, q)=e^{x} \sqrt{\frac{p-q}{p+q}} \frac{\sqrt{p^{2}-q^{2}}+p \sin \left(\left(e^{x}-1\right) \sqrt{p^{2}-q^{2}}\right)}{p \cos \left(\left(e^{x}-1\right) \sqrt{p^{2}-q^{2}}\right)-q}
$$

satisfies (16)). Also, this generating function gives $\widetilde{T}(0, p, q)=1$ and $\widetilde{T}(x, 0, q)=e^{x}$. Hence, $T=\widetilde{T}$.

Now let us prove that $t_{n, 2 i-1, j}=\left\{\begin{array}{c}n+1 \\ i+j+1\end{array}\right\} a_{i}(i+j)$. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j-i} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} & =\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j-i} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=\sum_{n, j \geqslant 0}\left\{\begin{array}{l}
n+1 \\
j+1
\end{array}\right\} L_{j}(p) q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!} \\
& =e^{x} \sum_{j \geqslant 0} \frac{\left(e^{x}-1\right)^{j}}{(j)!} L_{j}(p) q^{j}=e^{x} L\left(p, q\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence,

$$
\sum_{n, i, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j} p^{i} q^{j} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}=e^{x} L\left(p / q, q\left(e^{x}-1\right)\right)=T(x, p, q),
$$

as required.

Let $t_{n}=\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} t_{n, i, j}$. It follows from (15) that $t_{n}=\sum_{k=0}^{n} k!\left\{\begin{array}{c}n+1 \\ k+1\end{array}\right\}$. Along the same lines as the proof of Corollary 6 , we get the following.

Corollary 16. For all $n \geqslant 1, i \geqslant 1$ and $j \geqslant 0, t_{n, i, j}$ is the number of cyclically ordered partitions of $[n+1]$ having $i+j+1$ blocks such that the list of openers has the longest alternating subsequence of length $i$.

## 3 Concluding remarks

In this paper, we explore some context-free grammars suggested by (1). In fact, there are many other extension of (1). For example, many authors investigated the following generalized Lotka-Volterra system (see [14]):

$$
\frac{d x}{d t}=x(C y+z), \frac{d y}{d t}=y(A z+x), \frac{d z}{d t}=z(B x+y) .
$$

Consider the grammar

$$
G=\{x \rightarrow x(y+z), y \rightarrow y(z+x), z \rightarrow z(x+y)\} .
$$

Define

$$
D^{n}(x)=\sum_{i \geqslant 1, j \geqslant 0} g_{n, i, j} x^{i} y^{j} z^{n+1-i-j} .
$$

By induction, one can easily verify the following: for all $n \geqslant 1, i \geqslant 1$ and $j \geqslant 0$, we have

$$
g_{n, i, 0}=\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i
\end{array}\right\rangle, g_{n, i, n+1-i}=\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
n \\
i
\end{array}\right\rangle, g_{n, 1, j}=\left\langle\begin{array}{c}
n+1 \\
j+1
\end{array}\right\rangle .
$$

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