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Telephone number (mathematics)

In <u>mathematics</u>, the telephone numbers or the involution numbers are a <u>sequence of integers</u> that count the ways *n* telephone lines can be connected to each other, where each line can be connected to at most one other line. These numbers also describe the number of <u>matchings</u> (the <u>Hosoya index</u>) of a <u>complete graph</u> on *n* vertices, the number of <u>permutations</u> on *n* elements that are <u>involutions</u>, the sum of absolute values of coefficients of the <u>Hermite polynomials</u>, the number of standard <u>Young tableaux</u> with *n* cells, and the sum of the degrees of the <u>irreducible representations</u> of the <u>symmetric group</u>. Involution numbers were first studied in 1800 by <u>Heinrich August</u> <u>Rothe</u>, who gave a <u>recurrence equation</u> by which they may be calculated,^[1] giving the values (starting from n = 0)

1, 1, 2, 4, 10, 26, 76, 232, 764, 2620, 9496, ... (sequence <u>A000085</u> in the <u>OEIS</u>).



The complete graph K_4 has ten matchings, corresponding to the value T(4) = 10 of the fourth telephone number.

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Applications

<u>John Riordan</u> provides the following explanation for these numbers: suppose that a telephone service has n subscribers, any two of whom may be connected to each other by a telephone call. How many different patterns of connection are possible? For instance, with three subscribers, there are three ways of forming a single telephone call, and one additional pattern in which no calls are being made, for a total of four patterns.^[2] For this reason, the numbers counting how many patterns are possible are sometimes called the telephone numbers.^{[3][4]}

Every pattern of pairwise connections between n subscribers defines an <u>involution</u>, a <u>permutation</u> of the subscribers that is its own inverse, in which two subscribers who are making a call to each other are swapped with each other and all remaining subscribers stay in place. Conversely, every possible involution has the form of a set of pairwise swaps of this type. Therefore, the telephone numbers also count involutions. The problem of counting involutions was the original <u>combinatorial enumeration</u> problem studied by Rothe in 1800^[1] and these numbers have also been called involution numbers.^{[5][6]}

In graph theory, a subset of the edges of a graph that touches each vertex at most once is called a <u>matching</u>. The number of different matchings of a given graph is important in <u>chemical graph theory</u>, where the graphs model molecules and the number of matchings is known as the <u>Hosoya index</u>. The largest possible Hosoya index of an *n*-vertex graph is given by the <u>complete graphs</u>, for which any pattern of pairwise connections is possible; thus, the Hosoya index of a complete graph on *n* vertices is the same as the *n*th telephone number.^[7]

A <u>Ferrers diagram</u> is a geometric shape formed by a collection of n squares in the plane, grouped into a <u>polyomino</u> with a horizontal top



edge, a vertical left edge, and a single monotonic chain of horizontal and vertical bottom and right edges. A standard <u>Young tableau</u> is formed by placing the numbers from 1 to *n* into these squares in such a way that the numbers increase from left to right and from top to bottom throughout the tableau. According to the <u>Robinson–Schensted</u> <u>correspondence</u>, permutations correspond one-for-one with ordered pairs of standard <u>Young tableaux</u>. Inverting a permutation corresponds to swapping the two tableaux, and so the self-inverse permutations

A standard Young tableau

correspond to single tableaux, paired with themselves.^[8] Thus, the telephone numbers also count the number of Young tableaux with n squares.^[1] In representation theory, the Ferrers diagrams correspond to the irreducible representations of the symmetric group of permutations, and the Young tableaux with a given shape form a basis of the irreducible representation with that shape. Therefore, the telephone numbers give the sum of the degrees of the irreducible representations.

In the <u>mathematics of chess</u>, the telephone numbers count the number of ways to place *n* rooks on an $n \times n$ <u>chessboard</u> in such a way that no two rooks attack each other (the so-called <u>eight rooks</u> <u>puzzle</u>), and in such a way that the configuration of the rooks is symmetric under a diagonal reflection of the board. Via the <u>Pólya</u> <u>enumeration theorem</u>, these numbers form one of the key components of a formula for the overall number of "essentially different" configurations of *n* mutually non-attacking rooks, where two configurations are counted as essentially different if there is no symmetry of the board that takes one into the other.^[9]

Mathematical properties



A diagonally symmetric non-attacking placement of eight rooks on a chessboard

Recurrence

The telephone numbers satisfy the recurrence relation

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + (n-1)T(n-2),$$

first published in 1800 by <u>Heinrich August Rothe</u>, by which they may easily be calculated.^[1] One way to explain this recurrence is to partition the T(n) connection patterns of the n subscribers to a telephone system into the patterns in which the first subscriber is not calling anyone else, and the patterns in which the first subscriber is making a call. There are T(n - 1) connection patterns in which the first subscriber is disconnected, explaining the first term of the recurrence. If the first subscriber is connected to someone else, there are n - 1 choices for which other subscriber they are connected to, and T(n - 2) patterns of connection for the remaining n - 2 subscribers, explaining the second term of the recurrence.^[10]

Summation formula and approximation

The telephone numbers may be expressed exactly as a summation

$$T(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2
floor} inom{n}{2k} (2k-1)!! = \sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2
floor} rac{n!}{2^k (n-2k)!k!}.$$

In each term of this sum, k gives the number of matched pairs, the <u>binomial coefficient</u> $\binom{n}{2k}$ counts the number of ways of choosing the 2k elements to be matched, and the <u>double factorial</u> $(2k - 1)!! = (2k)!/(2^kk!)$ is the product of the odd integers up to its argument and counts the number of ways of completely matching the 2k selected elements.^{[1][10]} It follows from the summation formula and <u>Stirling's approximation</u> that, asymptotically,

$$T(n) \sim \left(rac{n}{e}
ight)^{n/2} rac{e^{\sqrt{n}}}{(4e)^{1/4}} \, .^{ ext{[1][10][11]}}$$

Generating function

The exponential generating function of the telephone numbers is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}rac{T(n)x^n}{n!} = \expigg(rac{x^2}{2}+xigg).^{ ext{[10][12]}}$$

In other words, the telephone numbers may be read off as the coefficients of the <u>Taylor series</u> of $\exp(x^2/2 + x)$, and the *n*th telephone number is the value at zero of the *n*th derivative of this function. This function is closely related to the exponential generating function of the <u>Hermite polynomials</u>, which are the <u>matching polynomials</u> of the complete graphs.^[12] The sum of absolute values of the coefficients of the *n*th (probabilist) Hermite polynomial is the *n*th telephone number, and the telephone numbers can also be realized as certain special values of the Hermite polynomials:^{[5][12]}

$$T(n)=rac{He_n(i)}{i^n}.$$

Prime factors

For large values of *n*, the *n*th telephone number is divisible by a large power of two, $2^{n/4} + O(1)$.

More precisely, the <u>2-adic order</u> (the number of factors of two in the <u>prime factorization</u>) of T(4k) and of T(4k + 1) is k; for T(4k + 2) it is k + 1, and for T(4k + 3) it is k + 2.^[13]

For any prime number p, one can test whether there exists a telephone number divisible by p by computing the recurrence for the sequence of telephone numbers, modulo p, until either reaching zero or <u>detecting a cycle</u>. The primes that divide at least one telephone number are

2, 5, 13, 19, 23, 29, 31, 43, 53, 59, ... (sequence A264737 in the OEIS)

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