A Constructive Count of Rotation Symmetric Functions

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Abstract

In this paper we present a constructive detection of minimal monomials in the algebraic normal form of rotation symmetric Boolean functions (immune to circular translation of indices). This helps in constructing rotation symmetric Boolean functions by respecting the rules we present here.

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1 Introduction

In [2], Pieprzyk and Qu studied some functions, which they called rotation symmetric (RotS), as components in the rounds of a hashing algorithm. The study of RotS functions was continued in [1, 4]. When efficient evaluation of the function is important, for instance in the implementation of MD4, MD5 or HAVAL, the RotS property is desirable, since one can reuse evaluations from previous iterations. We can simply view such a hashing algorithm as a sequence of iterations where each iteration takes some input $X = (X_k, \ldots, X_0)$ and a message block $M$ and produces the output $Y = (Y_k, \ldots, Y_0)$ using the rule $Y = M + F(X_{k+1}, \ldots, X_0) + \text{RotS}(X_k, s)$. Note that $M, X_i, Y_i$ are blocks of $N$-bits, and RotS$(X_k, s)$ is the circular rotation of the block $X_k$ by $s$ positions to the left, and $F$ is another cryptographic primitive. It is important to study the component RotS$(X_k, s)$ of such a hashing algorithm (for more information see [2], for a way to reuse previous evaluations).

As it is the case with every cryptographic property, one is interested to count the objects satisfying that property. This motivates us to look at Boolean functions satisfying various criteria and try to select functions necessary for cryptographic design. We need to know how big the pool of choices is and how to generate functions in that pool.

Let $V_n$ be the vector space of dimension $n$ over the two element field $\mathbb{Z}_2$ ($= V_1$). A Boolean function on $n$ variables may be viewed as a mapping from $V_n$ into $V_1$. We interpret a Boolean
function \(f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) as the output column of its truth table, i.e., a binary string of length \(2^n\), \(f = [f(0,0,\ldots,0), f(1,0,\ldots,0),f(0,1,\ldots,0), \ldots, f(1,1,\ldots,1)]\).

Throughout the paper, by \(a \leq i \leq b\), we mean that \(a, b, i\) are integers and \(i\) takes the values \(a, a+1, \ldots, b-1, b\). If \(x_i \in \{0,1\}\) for \(1 \leq i \leq n\), and \(0 \leq k \leq n-1\), we define
\[
\rho^k_n(x_i) = \begin{cases} x_{i+k} & \text{if } i + k \leq n, \\ x_{i+k-n} & \text{if } i + k > n. \end{cases}
\]

Let \((x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \in V_n\). We can extend the definition of \(\rho^k_n\) on tuples and monomials as follows:
\[
\rho^k_n(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) = (\rho^k_n(x_1), \rho^k_n(x_2), \ldots, \rho^k_n(x_n)) \text{ and } \rho^k_n(x_{i_1} x_{i_2} \cdots) = \rho^k_n(x_{i_1}) \rho^k_n(x_{i_2}) \cdots.
\]

**Definition 1.** A Boolean function \(f\) is rotation symmetric (RotS) if for each input \((x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in V_n\), \(f(\rho^k_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)) = f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) for any \(0 \leq k \leq n-1\).

Given a binary string \(x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)\), we define the weight of \(x\), denoted by \(wt(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\), as the number of 1’s in \(x\). Further, + is the addition operator over \(GF(2)\). An \(n\)-variable Boolean function \(f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) can be seen as a multivariate polynomial over \(GF(2)\), that is,
\[
f(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x_i + \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} a_{ij} x_i x_j + \ldots + a_{12\ldots n} x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n,
\]
where the coefficients \(a_0, a_i, a_{ij}, \ldots, a_{12\ldots n} \in \{0,1\}\). This representation of \(f\) is called the algebraic normal form (ANF) of \(f\). The number of variables in the highest order product term with nonzero coefficient is called the algebraic degree, or simply the degree of \(f\). A Boolean function is said to be homogeneous if its ANF contains terms of the same degree only.

Let us denote
\[
G_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \{\rho^k_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \text{ for } 0 \leq k \leq n-1\},
\]
that is, the orbit of \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) under the action of \(\rho^k_n\), \(0 \leq k \leq n-1\). It is clear that \(G_n(x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) generates a partition in the set \(V_n\). Let \(g_n\) be the number of such partitions. We found in [4] that the number of RotS functions is exactly
\[
2^{g_n}, \text{ where } g_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k|n} \phi(k) 2^{\frac{k}{n}}, \quad (1)
\]
\(\phi\) being Euler’s phi–function. It turns out that the sequence \(g_n\) counts also the number of \(n\)-bead necklaces with 2 colors when turning over is not allowed, or output sequences from a simple \(n\)-stage cycling shift register, or binary irreducible polynomials whose degree divides \(n\) (see [3]). The proof needs Burnside’s lemma (see [4] for a more detailed discussion).
Further the following results have been proved in [4] regarding RotS functions of some specific degree. Consider \( n \)-variable RotS Boolean functions. The number of

(i) degree \( w \) homogeneous functions is \( 2^{g_{n,w}} - 1 \),

(ii) degree \( w \) functions is \( (2^{g_{n,w}} - 1)2^{W-1}g_{n,i} \) and

(iii) functions with degree at most \( w \) is \( 2^{W}g_{n,i} \),

where \( g_{n,w} \) is defined as follows [4]: consider \( G_{n}(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}) \), where \( wt(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}) \) is exactly \( w \), and define \( g_{n,w} \) as the number of partitions over the \( n \) bit binary strings of weight \( w \) (total number \( \binom{n}{w} \)), determined by \( G_{n} \). Further, denote by \( h_{n,w} \) the number of distinct sets \( G_{n}(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}) \), where \( wt(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}) = w \) and \( |G_{n}(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n})| = n \), that is, the number of long cycles of weight \( w \). It is easy to see that \( h_{n,w} \leq g_{n,w} \). Write \( k|\mu \), if \( k \) (\( 1 < k \leq m \)) is a proper divisor of \( m \). The following result was obtained in [4]:

\[
(i) \quad g_{n,w} = \frac{1}{n} \binom{n}{w}, \text{ if } \gcd(n, w) = 1. \text{ Also, } g_{n,0} = g_{n,n} = 1.
\]

\[
(ii) \quad g_{n,w} = \frac{1}{n} \left( \binom{n}{w} - \sum_{k|\gcd(n,w)} \frac{n}{k} \cdot h_{\frac{n}{k}, \frac{w}{k}} \right) + \sum_{k|\gcd(n,w)} h_{\frac{n}{k}, \frac{w}{k}}, \text{ if } w < n.
\]

However, the combinatorial results of [4] renders a nonconstructive count as opposed to the results of this paper. By using a different method, we find necessary and sufficient conditions for minimal monomials to generate cycles in homogeneous RotS functions. This in turn helps in the enumeration of RotS functions of certain degree.

2 The Results

We start with the definition of the short algebraic normal form (SANF) of a RotS function. By abuse of notation we use \( G_{n} \) further on the monomials defining

\[
G_{n}(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{d}) = \{ \rho_{n}^{k}(x_{i_{1}}, x_{i_{2}}, \ldots, x_{i_{d}}), \text{ for } 0 \leq k \leq n - 1 \}.
\]

We write a RotS function \( f(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}) \) in the form

\[
a_{0} + a_{1}x_{1} + \sum_{i} a_{ij}x_{i_{1}}x_{i_{2}} + \ldots + a_{12\ldots n}x_{1}x_{2}\ldots x_{n},
\]

where the coefficients \( a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{1j}, \ldots, a_{12\ldots n} \in \{0, 1\} \), and the existence of a representative term \( x_{1}x_{i_{2}}\ldots x_{i_{d}} \) implies the existence of all the terms from \( G_{n}(x_{1}x_{i_{2}}\ldots x_{i_{d}}) \) in the ANF. This representation of \( f \) is called the short algebraic normal form (SANF) of \( f \). Note that the number of
terms in each summation \((\sum)\) corresponding to same degree terms depends on the number of short and long cycles.

A cycle is called **long** if the minimum \( N \) satisfying \( \rho_n^{N+1}(x_1, \ldots, x_{jd}) = x_1, \ldots, x_{jd} \) is \( n-1 \), i.e., \(|G_n(x_1 x_2 \ldots x_{jd})| = n\). A cycle is called **short** if the minimum \( N \) satisfying \( \rho_n^{N+1}(x_1, \ldots, x_{jd}) = x_1, \ldots, x_{jd} \) is strictly smaller than \( n-1 \), i.e., \(|G_n(x_1 x_2 \ldots x_{jd})| = N < n\). These cycles are completely determined by their **minimal monomial**, i.e., the lexicographically first term \( x_{j_1} x_{j_2} \cdots x_{j_d} \) (it is clear that \( j_1 \) must be 1).

Assume throughout that \( d \geq 1 \). First note that a degree \( d \) homogeneous RotS function is a sum of degree \( d \) RotS long cycles,
\[
\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \rho_n^k(x_{j_1} x_{j_2} \cdots x_{j_d}), \ j_1 < \cdots < j_d,
\]
or degree \( d \) RotS short cycles
\[
\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \rho_n^k(x_{j_1} x_{j_2} \cdots x_{j_d}), \ j_1 < \cdots < j_d.
\]

Therefore, there is an equivalence between the cycles of RotS functions and their minimal monomials. Using this observation we obtain our first result.

**Theorem 2.** The number of homogeneous RotS functions of degree \( d \geq 1 \) equals
\[
2^{m(d)} - 1,
\]
where \( m(d) \) is the number of minimal monomials of degree \( d \).

**Proof.** Let \( m_i, \ i = 1, \ldots, m(d) \) be the minimal monomials. It is obvious that any RotS function is a sum of cycles determined by these monomials. Since the constant 0 function is not counted, we get the result. \( \square \)

**Corollary 3.** The number of RotS functions of degree \( d \geq 1 \) (not necessarily homogeneous) is
\[
(2^{m(d)} - 1) \cdot 2^{\sum_{i=1}^{d-1} m(i)}
\]

**Proof.** In a degree \( d \) RotS functions we must have at least a degree \( d \) homogeneous RotS cycle. Using the previous theorem and the fact that RotS cycles of lower degree may or may not appear, the number of these being \( 2^{\sum_{i=1}^{d-1} m(i)} \), we get the count. \( \square \)

The number of degree \( d \) monomials is obviously \( \binom{n}{d} \). How many of these monomials can occur as minimal terms? We shall give a constructive answer to this question.
We treat the case of degree 2 and 3 separately, to clear up some of the issues in the general degree \(d\) case. We take first the degree 2 RotS functions, with cycles of the form \(f_2(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = x_1x_{l+1} + x_2x_{l+2} + \cdots\).

**Theorem 4.** The number of degree 2 homogeneous RotS functions is \(2^\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor - 1\).

**Proof.** It suffices to prove that the number of minimal monomials is \(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\).

First, take \(n\) to be even. If \(l = \frac{n}{2}\), then \(f_2\) is a short cycle. If \(l \leq \frac{n}{2} - 1\), it is easily seen that \(x_1x_{l+1}\) is minimal. If \(l \geq \frac{n}{2}\), then \(\rho^l_n(x_1x_{l+1}) = x_{n-l+1}x_1\), which is less than \(x_1x_{l+1}\), so \(x_1x_{l+1}\) is not minimal. Therefore, the number of RotS cycles in this case is \(\frac{n}{2}\).

Now, if \(n\) is odd, the same analysis renders the number of RotS cycles to be \(\frac{n-1}{2}\).

Now we take the case of degree 3 RotS functions, with long cycles of the form

\[
f_3(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \rho^k_n(x_1x_{1+r}x_{1+r+s}),
\]

and short cycles of the form

\[
f_3(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \rho^k_n(x_1x_{1+r}x_{1+r+s}),
\]

with \(\rho^N_n(x_1x_{1+r}x_{1+r+s}) = x_1x_{1+r}x_{1+r+s} \) (\(N < n\) minimum with this property).

**Theorem 5.** The number of degree 3 RotS long cycles equals the number of pairs \(1 \leq r, s \leq n-1\) satisfying either of the following conditions:

(i) \(s > r\) and \(s + 2r < n\).

(ii) \(s = r < \frac{n}{3}\).

Moreover, there is only one short cycle if and only if \(n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}\), generated by the minimal monomial \(x_1x_{1+\frac{n}{3}}x_{1+\frac{2n}{3}}\).

**Proof.** We want to find all minimal monomials of degree 3, which generate long cycles. Take an arbitrary monomial with indices \(\{1, r + 1, r + s + 1\}\), which we assume to be minimal. By applying \(\rho^i_n\), we get monomials with indices \(\{i + 1, r + i + 1, r + s + i + 1\}\). It follows that for any \(i\), with \(1 \leq i \leq n - 1\), the term \(\rho^i_n(x_1x_{r+1}x_{r+s+1})\) follows \(x_1x_{r+1}x_{r+s+1}\) in lexicographical order.

Therefore, we have \(\{i, r+i, r+s+i\} \succ \{0, r, r+s\} \pmod{n}\) (we assume the indices in increasing lexicographical order), which will hold, except, if either \(r+i \equiv 0 \pmod{n}\) or \(r+s+i \equiv 0 \pmod{n}\). Since \(i \leq n-1\), we obtain that either \(i = n-r\) or \(i = n-r-s\).
Case 1. If \( i = n - r \), then \( \{0, s, n - r\} > \{0, r, r + s\} \) (obviously, \( n - r > s \)). Thus, we obtain that a necessary condition for our monomial to be minimal is to have \( s > r \), or \( s = r \) and \( r < \frac{n}{3} \) (not sufficient, yet).

Case 2. If \( i = n - r - s \), then we need \( \{0, n - r - s, n - s\} > \{0, r, r + s\} \). We get that, either \( n - r - s > r \), or, \( n - r - s = r \) and \( n - s > r + s \), that is, another necessary condition for our monomial to be minimal is to have \( 2r < n - s \), or \( 2r = n - s \) and \( r > \frac{n}{3} \).

A similar analysis (which will be done fully in our general theorem), renders one short cycle if and only if \( n \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \), generated by \( x_1x_{1+n}x_{1+2n} \).

**Corollary 6.** The number of degree 3 RotS cycles is

\[
n \cdot \left\lfloor \frac{n - 1}{3} \right\rfloor - \frac{3(n-1)}{2} \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor + 1,
\]

plus one short cycle if and only if \( n \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \).

**Proof.** The number of pairs in case \( (ii) \) of Theorem 5 is \( \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor \). In case \( (i) \), we need \( r \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor \) and \( r < s < n - 2r \). Thus, the number of pairs in case \( (i) \) is

\[
\sum_{r=1}^{\left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor} (n - 3r - 1) = (n-1) \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor - \frac{3(n-1)}{2} \left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{3} \right\rfloor + 1.
\]

Hence the result. \( \square \)

Now, we treat the general case. Let a degree \( d \) (homogeneous) RotS long cycle be given by

\[
f(x_1, \cdots, x_n) = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \rho_n^j(x_1x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}}).
\]

We shall find all monomials \( x_1x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}} \), that are minimal, thus counting the degree \( d \) RotS cycles and giving in the same time a way to list them. For arbitrary \( j \), \( \rho_n \) acts on a minimal monomial in the following way

\[
\rho_n^j(x_1x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}}) = x_{1+j}x_{1+i_1+j} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}+j}.
\]

For \( 1 \leq k \leq d - 1 \), take \( j = n - i_1 - \cdots - i_k \). Since \( x_1x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}} \) is minimal, it follows that, using the lexicographical order,

\[
\{0, i_{k+1}, i_{k+1} + i_{k+2}, \ldots, i_{k+1} + \cdots + i_{d-1}, n - i_1 - \cdots - i_k, n - i_2 - \cdots - i_k, \ldots, n - i_k \} > \{0, i_1, i_1 + i_2, \ldots, i_1 + \cdots + i_{d-1}\}.
\]
We observe immediately that $i_1 \leq i_{k+1}$, for any $k$. We distinguish two cases.

**Case 1.** If $k = d - 1$, then we need

$$\{0, n - i_1 - \cdots - i_{d-1}, \ldots, n - i_d\} > \{0, i_1, i_1 + i_2, \ldots, i_1 + \cdots + i_{d-1}\}.$$  

It implies that the indices satisfy either:

- **$C$:** $n > 2i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_{d-1}$, or
- **$C_1$:** $n = 2i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_{d-1}$ and $n > i_1 + 2i_2 + i_3 + \cdots + i_{d-1}$ ($\iff i_1 > i_2$), or
- **$C_2$:** $n = 2i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_{d-1}$ and $i_1 = i_2 > i_3$, or
- $\vdots$
- **$C_{d-2}$:** $n = 2i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_{d-1}$ and $i_1 = i_2 = i_3 = \cdots = i_{d-2} > i_{d-1}$.

But the conditions $i_1 = \cdots = i_s > i_{s+1}$, occurring in $C_s$ ($1 \leq s \leq d - 2$), contradict the first observation that $i_1 \leq i_{s+1}$, $s \geq 1$. Therefore, the only condition in this case that the indices must satisfy is

$$2i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_{d-1} < n.$$  

**Case 2.** If $1 \leq k \leq d - 2$, then the inequality (2) implies that the indices satisfy either of the following conditions:

- **$P^k_1$:** $i_1 < i_{k+1}$, or
- **$P^k_2$:** $i_1 = i_{k+1}$, $i_2 < i_{k+2}$, or
- **$P^k_3$:** $i_1 = i_{k+1}$, $i_2 = i_{k+2}$ and $i_3 < i_{k+3}$, or
- $\vdots$
- **$P^k_{d-k}$:** $i_1 = i_{k+1}$, $i_2 = i_{k+2}, \ldots, i_{d-k-2} = i_{d-2}$ and $i_{d-k-1} < i_{d-1}$, or
- **$P^k_{d-k}$:** $i_1 = i_{k+1}, \ldots, i_{d-k-1} = i_{d-1}$ and $n - \sum_{a=1}^{k} i_a > \sum_{b=1}^{d-k} i_b$, or
- **$P^k_{d-k+1}$:** $i_1 = i_{k+1}, \ldots, i_{d-k-1} = i_{d-1}$, $n = \sum_{a=1}^{k} i_a + \sum_{b=1}^{d-k} i_b$ and $n - \sum_{a=2}^{k} i_a > \sum_{b=1}^{d-k+1} i_b$, or, in general,

$$P^k_{d-k+l}: \text{and } \sum_{s=1}^{d-k+l} i_s + \sum_{t=l+1}^{k} i_t < n, \text{ for } 0 \leq l \leq k - 1,$$

where $Q^k_{d-k+l}$ is the condition $i_1 = i_{k+1}$ and $\cdots i_{d-1-k} = i_{d-1}$ and $n - \sum_{a=s}^{k} i_a = \sum_{b=1}^{d-k+s-1} i_b$, for all $1 \leq s \leq l$, that is, $Q^k_{d-k+l}$ is the condition $n = \sum_{a=1}^{k} i_a + \sum_{b=1}^{d-k} i_b$ and $i_j = i_{k+j}, 1 \leq j \leq d - 1 - k$ and $i_s = i_{d-k+s}, 1 \leq s \leq l - 1$.

To have a short cycle, we need $j = n - i_1 - \cdots - i_k$, with $\rho_n^j(x_1 x_{i_1+i_2} \cdots x_{i_1+i_2+\cdots+i_{d-1}}) = x_1 x_{i_1+i_2} \cdots x_{i_1+i_2+\cdots+i_{d-1}}$. We see that if $k = d - 1$, then $i_1 = i_2 = \cdots = i_{d-1} = \frac{n}{d}$, and the
minimal monomial for this unique short cycle is $x_1 x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+(d-1)i_1}$. If $k < d - 1$, then a minimal monomial for a short cycle needs to satisfy

$$\{0, i_{k+1}, i_{k+1} + i_{k+2}, \ldots, i_{k+1} + \cdots + i_{d-1}, n - i_1 - \cdots - i_k, n - i_2 - \cdots - i_k, \ldots, n - i_k\} = \{0, i_1, i_1 + i_2, \ldots, i_1 + \cdots + i_{d-1}\},$$

which implies

$$S_k: \quad i_{k+1} = i_1, i_{k+2} = i_2, \ldots, i_{d-1} = i_{d-1-k};$$

$$i_1 = i_{d-k+1}, i_2 = i_{d-k+2}, \ldots, i_{k-1} = i_{d-1};$$

$$n = i_1 + i_2 + \cdots + i_{d-1} + i_k.$$  

Assuming $n - i_1 - \cdots - i_k$ is the order of $\rho_n$ on $x_1 x_{1+i_1} \cdots$, we need to impose also the conditions that for any $j = n - i_1 - \cdots - i_l$ ($l > k$),

$$\rho_j^l(x_1 x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}}) > x_1 x_{1+i_1} \cdots x_{1+i_1+\cdots+i_{d-1}}.$$

Similar to the case of long cycles, we obtain that the indices must satisfy in addition to $S_k$, one of the following conditions

$$P^l_1, P^l_2, \ldots \quad (l > k).$$

Putting together the previous results we get our general theorem ($\lor, \land$ are the logical or, respectively, and).

**Theorem 7.** The number of degree $d$ RotS long cycles is equal to the number of sequences $1 \leq i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_{d-1} \leq n - 1$ satisfying

$$\bigwedge_{k=1}^{d-2} \left( \bigvee_{s=1}^{d-1} P^k_s \right) \land C,$$

Moreover, the number of degree $d$ RotS short cycles is equal to the number of sequences $1 \leq i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_{d-1} \leq n - 1$ satisfying

$$\bigvee_{k=1}^{d-2} \left( S_k \land \bigwedge_{l=k+1}^{d-1} \left( \bigvee_{s=1}^{d-1} P^l_s \right) \right)$$

plus one more, if $n \equiv 0 \pmod{d}$.

We regard the previous result as a summarizing or listing theorem. The count is certainly not as simple as the one of $g_{n,w}$ presented in the introduction, but it has the advantage that one can construct RotS Boolean functions by respecting the rules of Theorem 7. Certainly, it is possible to get the exact count in some particular cases (which we have done in Theorem 4 and Corollary 6 for $n = 2, 3$), but it seems elusive to get, for general $n$, the count $g_{n,w}$ using Theorem 7.
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