AN ANALOGUE OF THE MULTINOMIAL THEOREM

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1. Let x_i , y_i (i = 1, 2, ..., t) and n be non-negative integers. A function (n; x_1 , ..., x_t) may be defined recursively as follows: let (0;0,...,0) = 1 and

$$(n; \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^t \mathbf{x}_i > n \\ & \\ \sum_{i=1}^t \dots \sum_{j=0}^t (n-1; y_1, \dots, y_t) \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

If Δ denotes the t x t determinant given by

$$\Delta_{n}(x_{1},...,x_{t}) = \Delta_{n} = |a_{rs}|_{r, s=1,...,t}; a_{rs} = \begin{cases} -x_{r} & \text{if } r \neq s \\ -x_{r} & \text{if } r = s \end{cases}$$
(2)

$$= n^{t} [1 - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{t} x_{i}], \qquad (3)$$

then it is easy to verify that, when $\sum_{i=1}^{t} x_i \leq n$,

$$(n; x_1, ..., x_t) = \triangle \prod_{n+1}^{t} (n+1+x_i)^{-1} {n+1+x_i \choose x_i}$$
 (4)

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where the last symbol denotes a binomial coefficient. Interest in the relation (4) arose in a study of simple sampling plans of size n and it includes, as special cases, some known ballot theorems in probability $[\underline{1}, 66, \underline{5}, \underline{6}]$. In this note* we confine ourselves to the case t=3 (apart from a verification of (4) in $\underline{6}$ 2); our purpose being to exhibit its connection with a certain set T(n) of vectors forming a distributive lattice, partially ordered by a relation of domination [cf. $\underline{2}, \underline{3}$]. If $n \geq 1$, and a_1, \ldots, a_n are non-negative integers, T(n) consists of the vectors $A_n = (a_1, \ldots, a_n)$ which satisfy

(i)
$$0 \le a_1 \le a_2 \le \cdots \le a_n$$
,

(ii)
$$a_i \le 3i \ (i = 1, 2, ..., n).$$

A is said to dominate B if, and only if, $a_i \ge b_i$ (i = 1,2,...,n) and both A and B are in T(n). We introduce certain subsets T(n,r) and $S_r(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)$ of T(n), where $r=0,1,\ldots,n$, $x_1+x_2+x_3=r$. Let

$$T(n, 0) = \{ (0, ..., 0) \}, T(n, n) = \{ A_n | a_1 > 0 \}$$

$$(5)$$

$$T(n, r) = \{ A_n | a_1 = ... = a_{n-r} = 0, a_{n-r+1} > 0 \}, r=1, ..., n-1.$$

Thus T(n, r), $0 \le r \le n$ form a partition of T(n). Also, if $A_n \in T(n, r)$, then it has exactly r positive components a_{n-r+1}, \ldots, a_n , by (1). Of these r components, let x_i of them be $\equiv i-1 \pmod 3$ so that

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = r$$
.

For fixed $x_1 \ge 0$, $x_2 \ge 0$, $x_3 \ge 0$ with $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = r$, let $S_r(n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$ denote the set of all A_n in T(n, r) with this

^{*}The case t = 2 was treated in [4].

property. Since the number of solutions of $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = r$ in non-negative integers is $\binom{r+2}{2}$, we see that T(n, r) is partitioned into $\binom{r+2}{2}$ sets $S_r(n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$.

Let $[n, r; x_1, x_2, x_3]$ denote the number of vectors in $S_r(n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$. Then we shall prove, in § 3, that it is independent of r and, moreover,

$$[n, r; x_1, x_2, x_3] = (n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$$
,

where the function on the right is given in (4), with t = 3.

We remark that the set T(n) and its relation of domination have a simple geometrical interpretation in the plane, which indicates a connection with ballot theorems [cf. 1, 5]. Consider the triangle Δ ,

$$0 \le 3y \le x \le 3n+4$$

and let P(n) be the path from O(0,0) to P(3n + 4, n) inside Δ of the form

$$\{OP_{0}P_{1}P_{1}P_{1} \dots P_{n-1}P_{n-1}P\}$$
,

where $P_{n-j} = (3n + 4 - a_j, n - j)$, $P_{n-j}^i = P_{n-j} + (0,1)$. Clearly any vector of T(n) gives a path P(n) of this type and conversely. Also, the relation of domination for T(n) means that if A_n dominates B_n then the path corresponding to B_n is never above that of A_n .

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2. Proof of (4). It is clearly true for n = 0, 1. Suppose then that (4) holds for n = k - 1 ($k \ge 2$) and $\sum x_i \le k - 1$, we will prove that (4) holds for n = k and $\sum x_i \le k$. Now, by (1),

$$(k; x_1, ..., x_t) = \sum_{y_1=0}^{x_1} ... \sum_{y_t=0}^{x_t} (k-1; y_1, ..., y_t).$$

Since $\Sigma x_i \leq k$, we have $\Sigma y_i < k$ unless $y_1 = x_1, \ldots, y_t = x_t$ and $x_1 + \ldots + x_t = k$. This is a single term and, by (1), has value 0. Hence we can suppose $\Sigma x_i \leq k - 1$, in which case we can apply (4) to obtain

$$(k; x_1, \ldots, x_t) = \sum \ldots \sum_{i=1}^{t} (k+y_i)^{-1} {k+y_i \choose y_i} \triangle_k(y_1, \ldots, y_i),$$

Taking the factor $(k + y_i)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} k + y_i \\ y_i \end{pmatrix}$ into the ith

column of \triangle , we can effect the sum with respect to y_i by adding the t determinants, which differ only in the i^{th} column, in the usual way. Repeating for $i=1,2,\ldots,t$, we see that the sum on the right is itself a determinant, say $\left|d_{rs}\right|$, where

$$d_{rs} = \begin{cases} -\sum_{y_r=0}^{x_r} \frac{y_r}{k+y_r} \begin{pmatrix} k+y_r \\ y_r \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } r \neq s \\ \sum_{y_r=0}^{x_r} \frac{k-y_r}{k+y_r} \begin{pmatrix} k+y_r \\ y_r \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } r = s. \end{cases}$$

Since

$$\begin{pmatrix} k+j \\ j-1 \end{pmatrix} = \sum_{x=1}^{j} \begin{pmatrix} k+j-x \\ j-x \end{pmatrix} ,$$

it follows that

$$\left|d_{rs}\right| = \prod_{i=1}^{t} (k+1+x_i)^{-1} \left(k+\frac{1}{x_i}+x_i\right) \triangle_{k+1}(x_1,\ldots,x_t).$$

3. Theorem: $[n, r; x_1, x_2, x_3] = (n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$. Proof. Since the theorem holds for n = 0, 1, it is sufficient to prove that

$$[n, r; x_1, x_2, x_3] = \sum_{y_1=0}^{x_1} \sum_{y_2=0}^{x_2} \sum_{y_3=0}^{x_3} (n-1; y_1, y_2, y_3)$$

for $n \ge 2$.

Let r be any fixed integer satisfying $0 \le r \le n$. Then this may be effected by setting up a (1,1) correspondence between the sets $S_r(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)$ and

$$S* (n-1;x_1,x_2,x_3) = \bigcup_{y_1,y_2,y_3} S_t(n-1;y_1,y_2,y_3),$$

where $0 \le y_i \le x_i$ (i = 1, 2, 3) and t denotes $y_4 + y_2 + y_3$. Let

$$S_{r}^{o}(n;x_{1},x_{2},x_{3}) = \{A_{n} | A_{n} \in T(n,r), a_{i} > 3, (i=1,2,...,n)\}$$

$$S_{r}^{n}(n;x_{1},x_{2},x_{3}) = \{A_{n} | A_{n} \in T(n,r), a_{i} \le 3, (i=1,2,...,n)\}$$

$$S_{r}^{k}(n;x_{1},x_{2},x_{3}) = \{A_{n} | A_{n} \in T(n,r), a_{k} \le 3, a_{k+1} > 3\},$$

$$k = 1,2,...,n-1.$$
(6)

Then $S_r^k(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)$, $k=0,1,\ldots,n$ form a partition of $S_r(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)$. Consider the mapping P_i of $S_r^1(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)$ into the set $S=\{P_i(A_n)|A_n\in S_r^i(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)\}$, where $P_i(A_n)$ is obtained from A_n by the following three operations

- (a) suppress the first element of A,
- (b) replace the next i i elements of A_n by 0,
- (c) subtract 3 from the last n i elements of A_n.

Thus $P_i(A_n) = A_{n-1}$ say, where $A_{n-1} \in S_{n-i}^j$ for some $j \ge i - 1$. In fact, if x_k' of the elements of $P_i(A_n)$ are $x = k - 1 \pmod 3$, we have

$$P_{i}(A_{n}) \in S_{n-i}^{j} (n-1, x_{1}^{'}, x_{2}^{'}, x_{3}^{'}).$$

We first show that P_i is a (1,1) mapping of S_r^1 (n; x_1 , x_2 , x_3) into S. Suppose then that $P_i(A_n) = P_i(B_n)$. This means that $P_i(A_n)$ and $P_i(B_n)$ are both elements of some S_{n-i}^j (n-1; x_1 , x_2 , x_3) and, in particular, that the last n-i elements are identical. Let $A_n = (a_1, \dots, a_i, a_{i+1}, \dots a_n)$, $B_n = (b_1, \dots, b_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n)$, since these must also have identical elements in the last n-i places by (c). Since r > n - i, we consider the elements

By (5) and (6) we see that they are all positive and ≤ 3 . Let x_j of these a's be $\equiv j-1 \pmod 3$. Since $a_k = b_k \pmod 4$, we see that y_j of these b's are $\equiv j-1 \pmod 3$. Moreover, they are all ≤ 3 . Hence

either
$$y_1 \neq 0$$
 and $a_{n-r+1} = \dots = a_i = b_{n-r+1} = \dots = b_i = 3$

or $y_1 = 0$ and $a_{n-r+1} = \dots = a_{n-r+y_2} = 1$; $a_{n-r+y_2+1} = \dots = a_i = 2$

$$b_{n-r+1} = \dots = b_{n-r+y_2} = 1$$
; $b_{n-r+y_2+1} = \dots = b_i = 2$.

Hence $A_n = B_n$. Consider now the mapping P of $S_r(n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$ into $S'(n-1; x_1, x_2, x_3)$ where $P(A_n) = P_i(A_n)$ whenever $A_n \in S_r^i(n; x_1, x_2, x_3)$, (i=0,1,...n). Clearly $P_i(A_n) \in S^*$, since $P_i(A_n) \in S_{n-i}^j(n-1; y_1, y_2, y_3)$ for some $j \ge i-1$ and $0 \le y_i \le x_i$,

(i = 1,2,3) by (a), (b), (c). We note also that P is (1,1), for supposing $A_n \in S_r^i$, $B_n \in S_r^k$, we have

$$P(A_n) \in S_{n-i}^{j} (j \ge i-1), P(B_n) \in S_{n-k}^{\ell} (\ell \ge k-1),$$

and then, $P(A_n) = P(B_n)$ implies that n - i = n - k or i = k and $j = \ell$ and so $P = P_i$.

Finally, we show that P is a (1,1) map onto S^* . Suppose then that $A_{n-1} \in S_{n-j}^k(n-1;y_1,y_2,y_3)$, where $0 \le y_i \le x_i$. Write $A_{n-1} = (0,\ldots 0,a_{j+1}',\ldots,a_n')$ and consider any $X_n \in S_r^j(n;x_1,x_2,x_3)$, where

$$X_n = (a_1, \ldots, a_j, a_{j+1}, \ldots, a_n).$$

Observe that $a_1 = \dots = a_{n-r} = 0$, and we may choose

$$a_{n-r+1} = \dots = a_{n-r+(x_2-y_2)} = 1,$$

$$a_{(n-r)} + (x_2-y_2) + 1 = \dots = a_{(n-r)} + (x_2-y_2) + (x_3-y_3) = 2,$$

$$a_{(n-r)} + (x_3 - y_3) + 1 = \dots = a_j = 3,$$

since
$$(n-r) + (x_2-y_2) + (x_3-y_3) + (x_4-y_4) = j$$
.

Thus, for this particular X_n , there are exactly n-r zero elements, $(x_2-y_2)+y_2$ elements $\equiv 1 \pmod 3$, $(x_3-y_3)+y_3$ elements $\equiv 2 \pmod 3$ and $(x_1-y_1)+y_1$ elements $\equiv 0 \pmod 3$. This concludes the proof.

4. It is evident that the method of § 3 is rather more general, in that we could, for example, consider sets of vectors (a₁,..., a_n) satisfying

(i)'
$$1 \le a_1 \le a_2 \le \cdots \le a_n$$

$$(ii)^i$$
 $a_i \leq \lambda i$ $(i = 1, \ldots, n).$

Even the condition (ii)' could be weakened to read $a_i \leq k K_i$, where $0 < K_1 < \ldots < K_n$. But such questions do not have such immediate importance in their applications to statistics.

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