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THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER  
OF COMPONENTS OF A RANDOM  
MAPPING FUNCTION

THESIS FOR THE DEGREE OF PH. D.  
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY  
JAY ERNEST FOLKERT  
1955

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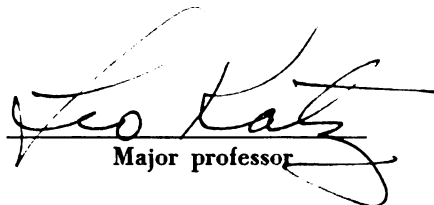
The Distribution of the Number of Components  
of a Random Mapping Function

presented by

Jay Ernest Folkert

has been accepted towards fulfillment  
of the requirements for

Ph. D. degree in Mathematics

  
Major professor

Date July 25, 1955

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OF A RANDOM MAPPING FUNCTION

By  
JAY ERNEST FOLKERT

A THESIS

Submitted to the School for Advanced Graduate  
Studies of Michigan State University in  
partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Mathematics

1955

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OF A RANDOM MAPPING FUNCTION

By  
Jay Ernest Folkert

AN ABSTRACT

Submitted to the School for Advanced Graduate  
Studies of Michigan State University in  
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Department of Mathematics

Year 1955

Approved

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Leo Katz", is written over a horizontal line. The signature is fluid and cursive, with a large loop at the end.

From the collection,  $F$ , of functions,  $f$ , which map the set,  $\Omega$ , of  $N$  elements into  $\Omega$ , the general subclass,  $G_{\{r_1\}}$ , is selected. This class is composed of functions such that for each  $f \in G_{\{r_1\}}$  the point  $x_1 \in \Omega$  has  $r_1$  images in  $\Omega$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . A probability space is constructed by taking  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  and attaching equal probability to each  $f \in G_{\{r_1\}}$ . A random mapping of  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$  relative to  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  is defined as corresponding to the selection of an  $f$  from  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  with uniform probability.

A subset  $\omega$  of  $\Omega$  is a component of the function if and only if it is a minimal, non - null subset such that  $f(\omega) \subset \omega$  and  $f^{-1}(\omega) \subset \omega$ . Every mapping function,  $f \in G_{\{r_1\}}$  decomposes  $\Omega$  into a number of disjoint components. Therefore, to each  $f$  in  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  there corresponds a number,  $c$ , which is the number of components induced in  $\Omega$  by this  $f$ . If  $f$  is selected at random from  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  then  $c$  is a random variable. The problem is to find the probability distribution of  $c$ .

The method used is one in which auxiliary sums,  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$  are defined. These sums are accounted for by two approaches. By the first approach a formula in terms of  $N$  and  $r_1$  is derived for computation of  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . By the second approach,  $S_\mu$  is found in terms





JAY ERNEST FOLKEFT

ABSTRACT

of the probability,  $P_c$ , of exactly  $c$  components,  $c = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . A matrix solution of this expression for  $P_c$  in terms of  $S_\mu$  is given. The result is the exact probability distribution of the number of components.

Particular cases of general mapping are considered as specializations of the mapping under  $G_{\{r_1\}}$ . These are the subclass,  $G_r$ , of functions under which each element of  $\Omega$  has the same number,  $r$ , of images and the subclass,  $G_1$ , of functions under which each element of  $\Omega$  has only one image.

Hollow mapping in the sense that no point is permitted to map into itself is also considered. For this case, the subclasses,  $H_{\{r_1\}}$ ,  $H_r$ , and  $H_1$  are defined in a manner parallel to the general case and the exact probability distribution is found for each.

Numerical examples are included to illustrate each of the cases considered. The amount of computation involved in these suggests the need for an approximation to the exact distribution. Therefore a binomial approximation is developed. The results of the exact and approximate distributions for these examples are included in tabular form for reasons of comparison.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
1. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
1:1. Basic considerations . . . . .	1
1:2. Statement of the problem and the plan of attack . . . . .	2
1:3. Previous work . . . . .	4
2. THE GENERAL CASE . . . . .	7
2:1. The calculation formula for the auxiliary sum, $S_{\mu}$ . . . . .	7
2:2. The exact probability distribution of the number of components . . . . .	14
2:3. A numerical example . . . . .	19
3. PARTICULAR CASES OF GENERAL MAPPING . . . . .	22
3:1. The class $G_r$ . . . . .	22
3:2. A numerical example . . . . .	23
3:3. The class $G_1$ . . . . .	24
3:4. A numerical example. . . . .	27
4. THE HOLLOW CASE . . . . .	32
4:1. Preliminaries. . . . .	32
4:2. The auxiliary sums and the exact probability distribution of the number of components. . . . .	33
4:3. A numerical example. . . . .	35
5. PARTICULAR CASES OF HOLLOW MAPPING. . . . .	37
5:1. The class $H_r$ . . . . .	37
5:2. A numerical example. . . . .	38
5:3. The class $H_1$ . . . . .	38
5:4. A numerical example. . . . .	40

## TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

	Page
6. A BINOMIAL APPROXIMATION OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF COMPONENTS . . . . .	42
6:1. Introductory considerations . . . . .	42
6:2. Derivation of an approximate probability distribution . . . . .	42
6:3. Numerical examples. . . . .	47
7. SUMMARY . . . . .	51
REFERENCES . . . . .	53

# LIST OF TABLES

	Page
TABLE 1. Stirling Numbers of the First Kind - $S_n^c$ .	19
TABLE 2. Comparison of the Exact and Approximate Distributions of the Number of Com- ponents in the General Case . . . . .	49
TABLE 3. Comparison of the Exact and Approximate Distributions of the Number of Com- ponents in the Hollow Case . . . . .	50

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

1:1. Basic considerations. This thesis is concerned with the collection,  $F$ , of transformations or functions,  $f$ , on the points of a set,  $\Omega$ , of  $N$  elements into the set  $\Omega$ . The most general kind of a function takes a point of  $\Omega$  into an arbitrary number of points of the set. Under such a function the point  $x_1$  maps into  $r_1$  points of  $\Omega$ ,  $x_2$  maps into  $r_2$  points of  $\Omega$ , etc.

A subset  $\omega$  of  $\Omega$  is a component of the transformation or function if and only if it is a minimal, non-null subset such that points of  $\omega$  map only into points of  $\omega$  and every point which maps into a point of  $\omega$  is itself a point of  $\omega$ . Symbolically, the subset  $\omega$  is a component of the function if it is a minimal, non-null subset  $\exists f(\omega) \subset \omega$  and  $f^{-1}(\omega) \subset \omega$ . It is essential that  $\omega$  be minimal.

Every mapping function,  $f \in F$ , decomposes  $\Omega$  into a number of disjoint components. For example, if  $f$  were a cyclic permutation taking  $x_1$  into  $x_{1+1}$ , mod  $N$ , there would be only one component. On the other hand, if  $f$  were the identity transformation, there would be  $N$  components. Consequently, depending on the function involved, there could be 1, 2, ..., or  $N$  components induced in  $\Omega$  by a function,  $f$ .

## 1:2. Statement of the problem and the plan of attack.

A suitably chosen subset  $\mathcal{F}$  of the finite collection,  $F$ , of functions is considered. A probability space is constructed by taking  $\mathcal{F}$  and attaching equal probability to each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ . A random mapping of  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$  relative to  $\mathcal{F}$  is defined as corresponding to the selection of an  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  with uniform probability. To each  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  there corresponds a number,  $c$ , which is the number of components induced in  $\Omega$  by this function. If  $f$  is selected at random from  $\mathcal{F}$ , then  $c$  is a random variable. The probability distribution of  $c$  for various choices of  $\mathcal{F}$  is the core of this thesis.

There are two main parts in this dissertation. Part I is the general case in which a point may map into itself. For any fixed set,  $\{r_i\}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , of values, there exists a subclass,  $G_{\{r_i\}} \subset F$ , of functions such that for each  $f \in G_{\{r_i\}}$  the points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  of  $\Omega$  have  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N$  images respectively. Of special interest is the case where  $r_i = r$  for all  $i$ . ( $0 \leq r \leq N$ ). This introduces the subclass,  $G_r \subset F$ , of functions under which each point of  $\Omega$  has the same number,  $r$ , of images. Moreover, the special case where  $r = 1$  yields the subclass  $G_1$  of functions under which each point has only one image.

Part II is the hollow case and deals with the subclass  $H_{\{r_i\}} \subset F$  of completely nonidentical functions under which no point is permitted to map into itself. As in the general case, the special cases  $H_r$  and  $H_1$  are considered.

These are actually subsets of the corresponding  $G$  sets and are defined in a manner parallel to the subsets  $G_{\{r_1\}}, G_r$  and  $G_1$ .

Starting with the general case, the procedure is to consider the subset  $\mathcal{J}$  to be the subset  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  with  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N$  images in  $\bigcup$  for the points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  respectively for each  $f \in G_{\{r_1\}}$ . Using matrix representation, which will be described in section 2:1, calculation formulas for auxiliary sums,  $S_\mu, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , are found in terms of  $N$  and the number of images,  $r_1$ . This is followed by a derivation of the same auxiliary sums by a different approach. By this second method  $S_\mu$  is found in terms of the probability,  $P_c$ , that exactly  $c$  components are induced in  $\bigcup$  by  $f$  chosen at random from  $G_{\{r_1\}}$ . Then, by matrix algebra, the last derivation is solved for  $P_c$ . The result is that the exact probability distribution of the number of components under the random mapping  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  is found in terms of  $S_\mu$ . Since the  $S_\mu, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , can be calculated by the first set of formulas, the distribution of  $c$  can be computed.

The results for the collection,  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  of functions are easily adapted to give similar results for the classes  $G_r$  and  $G_1$  by making proper changes in the values of  $r_1$  in the formulas.

The hollow case is treated in a manner parallel to the general case in as much as the subsets  $H_{\{r_1\}}, H_r$  and  $H_1$  are considered in turn. Moreover, the results of the



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general case can be adapted to this case by making proper changes in the limits of summation and proper substitutions in the formulas for the auxiliary sums to account for the fact that no point may map into itself.

The numerical examples which are included for each of the above cases indicate that considerable computation is involved in finding the exact distribution. The examples which are presented are relatively trivial. In order to minimize the work involved in more complicated cases a binomial approximation to each distribution is derived and illustrated by numerical examples.

1:3. Previous work. If  $\mathcal{P}$  is restricted to the class of permutations of  $N$  elements, components become cycles. Under a permutation any point of the finite set  $\Omega$  maps into a second, the second maps into a third, etc. until at some stage a point maps into the first member of the sequence. At this stage a cycle is formed. Gontcharoff [1] has given several moment generating functions for the number of cycles of the elements of a permutation group of  $N$  elements. His results of the asymptotic behavior of the distribution of the number of components are repeated in different forms by others. Feller [2] reports that if  $c$  is the number of cycles formed, the distribution of  $c$  is asymptotically normal with mean equal to  $\log N$  and standard deviation equal to  $(\log N)^{1/2}$ . More recently Greenwood [3]



showed by different methods that for large  $N$ , the mean of the number of cycles is approximately equal to  $\log N + C$ , where  $C$  is Euler's constant, and that the variance is approximately equal to  $\log N + C - \frac{\pi^2}{6}$ .

The case where  $\mathcal{J}$  is the class of single - valued mappings on  $N$  elements was considered in part by Metropolis and Ulam [4]. (This is the class which is called  $G_1$  in section 3:3.) They defined the study of a random function as the study of the probability distribution over the  $\Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  sample points of  $f(x)$  on  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$ . Using the word tree instead of component, they proposed the question of the expected number of components under random mapping. They suggested that the answer is no doubt of the order of  $\log N$  and base their surmise on the result which was previously obtained for cycles.

Kruskal [5] describes the structure of a component as consisting of a cycle together with a number of trees rooted in the elements of the cycle. This is consistent with the definition used in this thesis. He, too, considered the class of single - valued mappings and in particular dealt with the question proposed by Metropolis and Ulam. He showed that the expected number,  $E$ , of components under a random mapping function is

$$(1:1) \quad E = \sum_{m=1}^N \frac{N!}{(N-m)! m N^m} .$$

Moreover, for large  $N$  this reduces to the following asymptotic result,

$$(1:2) \quad E \sim 1/2 (\log 2N + C), \text{ where } C \text{ is Euler's constant.}$$

This dissertation will present the entire distribution for multiple - valued functions as well as single - valued functions. Thus its results extend well beyond those given by Kruskal.

## 2. THE GENERAL CASE

If no restriction is placed on the mapping of  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$ , it is conceivable that a point could map into itself. We shall refer to this type of mapping as the general case. The collection,  $F$ , of all functions on  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$  is admittedly broad for it does not specify the number of images of the different points of  $\Omega$ . Therefore the subclass,  $G_{\{r_i\}}$ , is considered. This class consists of those functions,  $f$ , under which each point  $x_i \in \Omega$  has  $r_i$  images in  $\Omega$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . It is assumed that  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N$  are known. Further, for each  $f \in G_{\{r_i\}}$  the mapping of  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$  is unique. Equal probability is assigned to each  $f$  in  $G_{\{r_i\}}$ . Since to each  $f$  in  $G_{\{r_i\}}$  there corresponds a number,  $c$ , which is the number of components induced in  $\Omega$  by this  $f$ ,  $c$  becomes a random variable if  $f$  is selected at random from  $G_{\{r_i\}}$ .

2:1. The calculation formula for the auxiliary sum,  $S_\mu$ . In order to begin the derivation of this formula it is necessary to introduce some notation.

(2:1) Let  $\mathcal{I} = \{i\}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$  be the set of indices of the points  $x_i \in \Omega$ .

(2:2) Let  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  be a  $\mu$ -part partition



of  $\mathcal{J}$  into subsets such that:

- (a)  $\alpha_j$  is non - empty for each  $j \leq \mu$
- (b)  $\alpha_j \cdot \alpha_k = 0$  for  $j \neq k$
- (c)  $\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_\mu = \mathcal{J}$ .

(2:3) Let  $\omega_{\alpha_j}$  be that subset of elements of  $\mathcal{J}$  with indices belonging to  $\alpha_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ .

(2:4) Let  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  be the event when  $\mathcal{J}$  is divided into subsets in accordance with (2:2) and (2:3),  $\omega_{\alpha_j}$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ ) has the properties:

- (a)  $f(\omega_{\alpha_j}) \subset \omega_{\alpha_j}$
- (b)  $f^{-1}(\omega_{\alpha_j}) \subset \omega_{\alpha_j}$

It is emphasized that none of the subsets  $\omega_{\alpha_1}, \omega_{\alpha_2}, \dots, \omega_{\alpha_\mu}$  need be minimal subsets having the properties (a) and (b) of (2:4). Therefore,  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  is not equivalent with decomposition of  $\mathcal{J}$  into components.

(2:5) Let  $p(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  be the probability of the occurrence of  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  on the condition that  $f$  is a random selection from  $G_{\{r_1\}}$ .

(2:6) Let  $S_\mu = \sum_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)} p(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu),$

$\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , where the sum is over all possible choices of  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  in accordance with (2:2) for a fixed value of  $\mu$ .



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(2:7) Let  $k_j$  = the number of indices in  $\alpha_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ . This implies that there are  $k_1$  elements in  $\omega_{\alpha_1}$ ,  $k_2$  elements in  $\omega_{\alpha_2}$ , etc. Consistent with (2:2)  $k_j > 0$  and  $k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N$

The indicated summation in (2:6) can now be considered in two parts. By theorem 3, section 4, chapter 2 of Feller [2.], for any fixed set of values  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$ , there

are  $\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu}$  ways in which the  $N$  indices of  $\mathcal{S}$  can be divided into  $\mu$  groups of which the first contains  $k_1$  indices, the second contains  $k_2$  indices, etc. Here

$\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu}$  is the multinomial coefficient and equals  $\frac{N!}{k_1! k_2! \dots k_\mu!}$ . However,  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$

can take on different values and still satisfy the conditions of (2:7). For each choice of  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$  the different choices of  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  must be considered. For convenience, therefore, it is possible to write (2:6) as a double sum,

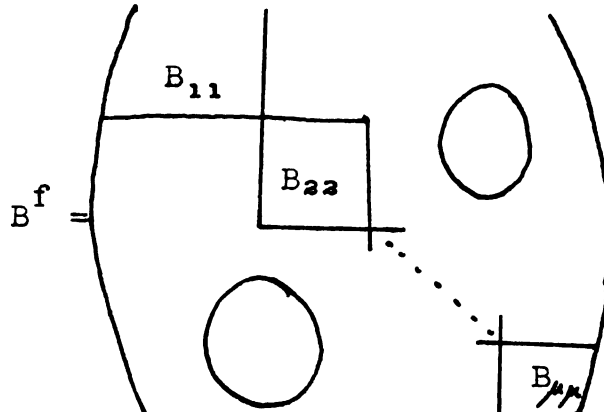
$$(2:6') \quad S_\mu = \sum_{(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)} \sum_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)}^{(k)} p_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)}$$

The symbol  $\sum_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)}^{(k)}$  means that for a fixed set of values  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$  the sum is taken over all

possible choices of  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  in accordance with (2:2).

To find a workable expression for  $S_\mu$ , it is necessary to evaluate  $p(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$ . In order to do this, each  $f \in \mathcal{G}_{r_1}$  is represented by an  $N$  by  $N$  matrix,  $B^f = (b_{ij}^f)$  where  $b_{ij}^f$  is either zero or unity. This representation is based on an approach suggested for sociometric data by Forsyth and Katz [6] and by Katz [7]. It was used in a similar way by Katz and Powell [8]. Each of the rows and columns of  $B^f$  is representative of a point of  $\Omega$ . The elements of each row denote the mapping of the point of  $\Omega$  which this row represents. For example, the  $i$ th row of  $B^f$  describes the mapping of  $x_i \in \Omega$ . If  $b_{iq}^f$  is unity, then  $x_i$  maps, under  $f$ , into  $x_q \in \Omega$ . If  $b_{iq}^f$  is zero, then  $x_i$  does not map into  $x_q$ . Since the functions  $f \in \mathcal{G}_{r_1}$  have been assigned equal probability, the  $r_1$  ones in row  $x_i$  may with equal probability appear in this row in any of  $\binom{N}{r_1}$  ways,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ .

The event that  $B^f$  has the form

$$(2:3) \quad B^f = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & & & \\ & B_{22} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & B_{\mu\mu} \end{pmatrix}$$


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is equivalent to the event,  $E_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu}$ . In (2:3)

$O$  stands for an array of zeros,  $B_{jj}$  is a  $k_j$  by  $k_j$  principal minor of  $B^f$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ . This form is equivalent to  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  because the  $k_1$  rows of  $B_{11}$  can represent the elements of  $\omega_{\alpha_1}$ , those of  $B_{22}$  can represent the elements of  $\omega_{\alpha_2}$ , etc. Since unity can appear only in the positions indicated in (2:8), the properties,  $f(\omega_{\alpha_j}) \subset \omega_{\alpha_j}$  and  $f^{-1}(\omega_{\alpha_j}) \subset \omega_{\alpha_j}$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$  are obviously satisfied.

The procedure for the evaluation of  $P(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  is as follows. For a fixed set of values  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$  which satisfy (2:7), one of the  $\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu}$  choices of elements from  $\Omega$  to represent the subsets  $\omega_{\alpha_1}, \omega_{\alpha_2}, \dots,$

$\omega_{\alpha_\mu}$  is made. By interchanging rows and corresponding columns,  $B^f$  is arranged that the rows and columns representing the  $k_1$  points of  $\omega_{\alpha_1}$  appear in the first  $k_1$  positions of  $B^f$ , those representing the  $k_2$  points of  $\omega_{\alpha_2}$  next, etc.

For purposes of identification the rows of  $B^f$  are then labeled from top to bottom:  $x_{1_1}, x_{1_2}, \dots, x_{1_{k_1}}; x_{2_1}, x_{2_2}, \dots, x_{2_{k_2}};$

$\dots; x_{\mu_1}, x_{\mu_2}, \dots, x_{\mu_{k_\mu}}$ . The corresponding

number of ones in these rows is denoted by:  $r_{1_1}, r_{1_2}, \dots,$

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$r_{1k_1}; r_{a_1}, r_{a_2}, \dots, r_{a_{k_2}}; \dots; r_{\mu_1}, r_{\mu_2}, \dots, r_{\mu_{k_\mu}}.$

The following auxiliary notation is now introduced:

(2:9)  $p_{1j}$  = probability that the  $r_{1j}$  ones in the  $j$ th row of  $B_{11}$  are in the  $k_1$  columns of  $B_{11}$  as indicated in (2:8),  $i = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k_1$ .

In row  $x_{1j}$ , the  $r_{1j}$  ones could appear in any of the  $N$  positions in the row if no restrictions were placed on  $B^f$ . Therefore there are  $\binom{N}{r_{1j}}$  ways in which they could be arranged in this row. However, if these  $r_{1j}$  ones are to appear only in the  $k_1$  columns of  $B^f$  to satisfy (2:8), then there are only  $\binom{k_1}{r_{1j}}$  ways in which they could be arranged.

The result is

$$(2:10) \quad p_{1j} = \frac{\binom{k_1}{r_{1j}}}{\binom{N}{r_{1j}}}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, \mu \text{ and } j = 1, 2, \dots, k_1.$$

In order to have  $B^f$  take form (2:8), the events for which the probabilities are given in (2:10) must all occur at the same time. Since these events are all independent, the probability of their simultaneous occurrence is the product of these probabilities.

Therefore,

$$(2:11) \quad P(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu) = \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} \prod_{j=1}^{k_1} \frac{\binom{k_1}{r_{1j}}}{\binom{N}{r_{1j}}}.$$

For a fixed set of values of  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$  the above procedure would be the same for each of the





$\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu}$  choices of elements from  $\Omega$  to form the subsets  $\omega_{\alpha_1}, \omega_{\alpha_2}, \dots, \omega_{\alpha_\mu}$ . Since (2:11) is a general result, it is the expression which can be used in (2:6') to give

$$(2:12) S_\mu = \sum_{(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)} \sum_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)}^{(k)} \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} \prod_{j=1}^{k_i} \frac{\binom{k_i}{r_{1j}}}{\binom{N}{r_{1j}}},$$

$$\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

The above derivation together with the limits on  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$  which are given in (2:7) and the fact that the factors of the denominators of (2:12) come from each of the  $N$  rows of  $B^f$  constitutes a proof of

THEOREM 1. If  $N$  is the number of elements in  $\Omega$ , if  $r_v$  is the number of images of the point  $x_v \in \Omega$ ,  $v = 1, 2, \dots, N$  and if  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  is defined by (2:2), the value of the auxiliary sum,

$S_\mu$  is given by

$$(2:12') S_\mu = \prod_{i=1}^N \binom{N}{r_{1i}} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 0 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N}} \sum_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)}^{(k)} \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} \prod_{j=1}^{k_i} \binom{k_i}{r_{1j}},$$

$$\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

Formula (2:12') provides the means for computing  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , from the initial conditions (i.e. with  $N$  given and  $r_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$  known, the auxiliary sums can be calculated). The values of  $S_\mu$  will be used to find the exact probability distribution.

2:2. The exact probability distribution of the number of components. In order to find the exact distribution of the number of components, it is necessary to obtain an expression involving the probability that an  $f \in G_{\{r_1\}}$  selected at random induces exactly  $c$  components in  $\bigcup$ . This is done by finding a formula for  $S_\mu, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$  by a different method.

Before deriving this expression for  $S_\mu$ , we prove:

LEMMA 1. If  $M(c, \mu)$  = the number of ways in which  $c$  components can be distributed into  $\mu$  subsets with none of them being empty and if  $\mathcal{S}_c^\mu$  are Stirling numbers of the second kind<sup>1</sup>, then

$$(2:13) \quad M(c, \mu) = \mu! \mathcal{S}_c^\mu$$

PROOF. The distribution of one or more components into a subset implies that all the elements of the components are elements of the subset and that the total number of elements in the components equals the number in the subset. No regard is given to arrangement of components within the subset.

Whitworth<sup>[10]</sup> in proposition XXII proves that the number of ways in which  $c$  different things can be distributed

<sup>1</sup>Stirling numbers of the second kind are defined by Jordan [9] as:  $\mathcal{S}_n^m = \left[ \frac{\Delta^m x^n}{m!} \right]_{x=0}$ , where  $\Delta^m x^n = (x+m)^n - m(x+m-1)^n + \frac{m(m-1)}{2!} (x+m-2)^n - \dots$



into  $\mu$  parcels (without blank lots) is  $c!$  times the coefficient of  $x^c$  in the expansion of  $(e^x - 1)^\mu$ . He describes "different things" as those which, for purposes of the problem, are not identical and he defines "parcels" as an unarranged class. Therefore, it is consistent to allow "things" to be considered "components" and "parcels" to be "subsets". Thus  $M(c, \mu)$  equals  $c!$  multiplied by the coefficient of  $x^c$  in the expansion of  $(e^x - 1)^\mu$ .

Jordan [9] in section 71, formula (5) shows that

$$(2:14) \quad (e^x - 1)^\mu = \sum_{c=\mu}^{\infty} \frac{\mu!}{c!} S_c^\mu x^c.$$

Therefore,

$$(2:13) \quad M(c, \mu) = \mu! S_c^\mu \text{ and the proof of lemma 1 is complete.}$$

It is now possible to prove

THEOREM 2. If  $P_c$  is the probability of exactly  $c$  components and if  $S_c^\mu$  are Stirling numbers of the second kind, the value of  $S_\mu$  is given by:

$$(2:15) \quad S_\mu = \mu! \sum_{c=\mu}^N P_c S_c^\mu, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

PROOF. In accordance with the hypothesis of lemma 1, the event  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  can be described by a condition which is equivalent to those given in (2:4).

$$(2:16) \quad E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu) = \text{the event that when } \sqcup$$

is divided into  $\mu$  subsets,  $(\omega_{\alpha_1}, \omega_{\alpha_2}, \dots, \omega_{\alpha_\mu})$ , in accordance with (2:2) and (2:3), it is true that the  $c$  components induced in  $\sqcup$  by  $f$  can be distributed into these  $\mu$  subsets with none of them being empty for all  $c \geq \mu$ .

$S_\mu$  is the sum of the probabilities of the occurrence of  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$ . If there are a fixed number of components, each of the ways of distributing these components into the  $\mu$  subsets of  $\sqcup$  constitutes an occurrence of  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$ . Consequently,

$$(2:17) \quad S_\mu = \sum_{c=\mu}^N P_c \cdot M(c, \mu), \quad \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

Using lemma 1 with (2:17), theorem 2 is proved.

The next step in deriving the exact probability distribution is to solve (2:15) for  $P_c$ .

THEOREM 3. If  $S_\mu, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$  is given by (2:12') and if

$$(2:18) \quad w_\mu = \frac{S_\mu}{\mu!}$$

and if  $S_\mu^c$  are Stirling numbers of the first kind<sup>2</sup>, then

<sup>2</sup>

Stirling numbers of the first kind are defined by Jordan [9] as  $S_n^m = \left[ \frac{1}{m!} D^m(x)_n \right]_{x=0}$ , where  $D^m(x)_n$  is the  $m$  th derivative of:  $x(x-1)(x-2) \dots (x-n+1)$ .

$$(2:19) \quad P_c = \sum_{\mu=c}^N W_{\mu} S_{\mu}^c, \quad c = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

PROOF. Using (2:13), (2:15) becomes

$$(2:20) \quad W_{\mu} = \sum_{c=\mu}^N P_c S_c^{\mu}, \quad \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

In matrix notation (2:20) is written:

$$(2:20') \quad W = P S, \text{ where}$$

$$(2:21) \quad W = (W_1 \ W_2 \ W_3 \ \dots \ W_N),$$

$$(2:22) \quad P = (P_1 \ P_2 \ P_3 \ \dots \ P_N) \text{ and}$$

$$(2:23) \quad S = \begin{pmatrix} S_1^1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ S_2^1 & S_2^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ S_3^1 & S_3^2 & S_3^3 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ S_N^1 & S_N^2 & S_N^3 & \dots & S_N^N \end{pmatrix}.$$

Since  $S_n^{\mu} = 0$  for all  $\mu > n$ ,  $S$  is a triangular matrix.

Moreover,  $S_n^n = 1$  for all  $n$ . Therefore,  $|S| = 1$ ,  $S$  is non-singular and has an inverse  $S^{-1}$ , which is also a triangular matrix of the same form. From (2:20'),

$$(2:24) \quad P = W S^{-1}.$$

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Using Jordan [9], it will be shown that:

$$(2:25) \mathcal{J}^{-1} = S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & & \\ S_1^1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ S_2^1 & S_2^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ S_3^1 & S_3^2 & S_3^3 & & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ S_N^1 & S_N^2 & S_N^3 & & S_N^N \end{pmatrix},$$

where  $S_n^c$  are Stirling numbers of the first kind. Jordan

shows

$$(2:26) \sum_{i=m}^n \mathcal{J}_n^i S_i^m = \delta_n^m,$$

where  $\delta_n^m$  is the Kronecker delta. This implies

$$(2:27) \quad S = I \text{ and } S = \mathcal{J}^{-1}.$$

Now (2:24) becomes

$$(2:24') \quad P = W S,$$

which in non - matrix notation is (2:19) and theorem 3 is proved.

Formula (2:19) is analogous to the formula (3.1) for the combination of events of chapter 4 of Feller [2.] The method of inclusion and exclusion used by Feller is different and does not work in the proof of (2:19). Katz [11.] employed the method used in this thesis. It involves setting



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up a system of equations involving the desired quantity. (In our case the desired quantity was  $P_c$ .) Then this system is solved so that this desired quantity is expressed explicitly in terms of other calculable quantities.

A short table of values of Stirling numbers of the first kind from Jordan [9.] is included in table 1 so they can be used in the computation of numerical examples.

TABLE 1  
STIRLING NUMBERS OF THE FIRST KIND -  $S_{\mu}^c$

$\mu \backslash c$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	-1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	2	-3	1	0	0	0	0	0
4	-6	11	-6	1	0	0	0	0
5	24	-50	35	-10	1	0	0	0
6	-120	274	-225	85	-15	1	0	0
7	720	-1764	1624	-735	175	-21	1	0
8	-5040	13068	-13132	6769	-1960	322	-28	1

These numbers are related by a recurrence formula:

$$S_{\mu+1}^c = S_{\mu}^{c-1} - \mu S_{\mu}^c \text{ with } S_1^1 = \delta_1^1 \text{ and } S_{\mu}^0 = 0. \text{ Thus, the}$$

table may be extended indefinitely.

2:3 A numerical example. Consider  $G_{\{1\}}$  defined by



$N = 6$  and  $r_1 = (1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3)$ . The values of the auxiliary sums by (2:12') are as follows.

If  $\mu = 1$ ,  $k_1 = N$  and  $S_1 = 1$ .

Since  $\binom{k}{r} = 0$  when  $r > k$ ,

$$S_2 = \frac{1}{\binom{6}{1}\binom{6}{2}\binom{6}{3}} \left\{ 4 \binom{1}{1}\binom{5}{1}\binom{5}{2}\binom{5}{3}^2 + 2 \left[ \binom{2}{1}\binom{4}{2}\binom{4}{3}^2 \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. + 4 \binom{2}{1}\binom{2}{2}\binom{4}{1}\binom{4}{2}\binom{4}{3}^2 + \binom{2}{2}\binom{4}{1}\binom{4}{3}^2 \right] + 20 \binom{3}{1}\binom{3}{2}\binom{3}{3}^2 \right\}$$

$$S_2 = \frac{212, 884}{3.24 \times 10^6} \doteq .065,705$$

$$S_3 = \frac{1}{3.24 \times 10^6} \left\{ 3 \left[ 2 \binom{1}{1}\binom{4}{2}\binom{4}{3}^2 \right] + 6 \left[ 4 \binom{1}{1}\binom{2}{1}\binom{2}{2}\binom{3}{2}\binom{3}{3}^2 \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. + 2 \binom{1}{1}\binom{2}{2}\binom{1}{1}\binom{3}{3}^2 \right] \right\}$$

$$S_3 = \frac{3636}{3.24 \times 10^6} \doteq .001,122$$

$S_4$ ,  $S_5$  and  $S_6$  all vanish because it is impossible to choose the  $k$ 's so that all  $\binom{k_1}{r_1} > 0$  in a given product.

Using (2:18) and (2:19) with table 1, the exact probability distribution of the number of components is:

$$P_1 = \frac{1,567,385}{1.62 \times 10^6} \doteq .967,522$$

$$P_2 = \frac{52,312}{1.62 \times 10^6} \doteq .032,291$$

$$P_3 = \frac{303}{1.62 \times 10^6} \doteq .000,187$$

$$P_4 = P_5 = P_6 = 0$$

### 3. PARTICULAR CASES OF GENERAL MAPPING

3:1. The class  $G_r$ . A special case of  $G_{\{r_1\}}$  of some importance in applications is the class  $G_r$ . Under each  $f \in G_r$ , each point of  $\Omega$  has the same number,  $r$ , of images. Any situation where each element under consideration maps into the same number of elements is of this type. While this case was implicitly covered in chapter 2, it is interesting to note what effect this particular kind of mapping will have on the computation formulas of the probability distribution.

Since  $G_r$  is a **special** case of  $G_{\{r_1\}}$ , the results of chapter 2 apply and can be modified to fit the situation that  $r_1 = r$ . The modification of the formula for  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , is threefold. First, with  $r_1 = r$  the subscripts on  $r$  can be removed. Second, the factors obtained from  $B_{11}$ ,  $1 = 1, \dots, \mu$ , are all equal and the double product of (2:12') can be changed to a single product with exponents. Third, for a fixed set of values,  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu)$ , the  $\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu}$  choices of elements from  $\Omega$  to form the subsets  $(\omega_{\alpha_1}, \omega_{\alpha_2}, \dots, \omega_{\alpha_\mu})$  will all give the same value for  $p(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  because the number of images of each point of  $\Omega$  is the same. Therefore, the indicated summation,

$$\sum_{(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)}^{(k)} \quad \text{can be replaced by the}$$



factor,  $\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu}$ . The result is

COROLLARY 1. If  $N$  is the number of points in  $\Omega$  and  $r$  is the number of images of each point, then it follows from theorem 1 that

$$(3:1) \quad S_\mu = \frac{1}{\binom{N}{r}^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 0 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N}} \binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu} \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} \binom{k_i}{r}^{k_i},$$

$$\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

REMARK 1. For computational purposes (3:1) can be written as:

$$(3:1') \quad S_\mu = \frac{1}{[N(r)]^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 0 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N}} \binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu} \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} [k_i(r)]^{k_i}, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N,$$

where  $N(r) = N(N-1) \dots (N-r+1)$

Since the expression for  $P_0$  in (2:10) does not depend directly on the value of  $r$  but rather on the values of  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , the probability distribution for this case can be computed as for the class  $G_{\{r_i\}}$ .

3:2. A numerical example. Consider  $G_r$  to be defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r = 2$ . The values of the auxiliary sums by (3:1') are





$$\begin{aligned}
S_1 &= 1 \\
S_2 &= \frac{1}{(30)^6} \left\{ 2 \binom{6}{2,4} (12)^4 (2)^2 + \binom{6}{3,3} (6)^6 \right\} = \frac{44}{9375} \\
S_3 &= \frac{1}{(30)^6} \binom{6}{2,2,2} (2)^2 = \frac{2}{253,125}
\end{aligned}$$

Since it is impossible to choose the  $k$ 's so that all  $\binom{k_1}{r} > 0$  in a given product,  $S_4$ ,  $S_5$ , and  $S_6$  all vanish.

The exact probability distribution as computed by (2:19) is:

$$P_1 = \frac{757,595}{759,375} \doteq .997,656$$

$$P_2 = \frac{1,779}{759,375} \doteq .002,343$$

$$P_3 = \frac{1}{759,375} \doteq .000,001$$

$$P_4 = P_5 = P_6 = 0$$

3:3. The class,  $G_1$ . The class of functions,  $f$ , under which each point of  $\sqcup$  has only one image in  $\sqcup$  is called  $G_1$ . This is the class of mappings considered by Metropolis and Ulam [4.] and Kruskal [5.]. Since  $G_1 \subset G_r$ , the results contained in (3:1) apply in this case. However, because of prior interest in this class of functions, it is appropriate to show explicitly the expressions which apply to this particular case.

Since each point of  $\Omega$  has only one image in  $\Omega$ ,  $r = 1$ . The result which follows from (3:1) is given in

COROLLARY 2. If  $N$  is the number of elements in  $\Omega$  and each point in  $\Omega$  has only one image, then

$$(3:2) \quad S_{\mu} = \frac{1}{N^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{\mu} > 0 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_{\mu} = N}} \binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{\mu}} \\ \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} (k_i)^{k_i}, \quad \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

Recently tables of the binomial probability distribution [12.] have been published. An alternative form of (3:2) for which these tables are useful is given in

THEOREM 4. If  $S_{\mu}$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , is given

by (3:2) and if  $b(k; n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$  is the binomial probability distribution, then

$$(3:3) \quad S_{\mu} = \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{\mu} > 0 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_{\mu} = N}} b\left(k_1; N, \frac{k_1}{N}\right) b\left(k_2; N - k_1, \frac{k_2}{N - k_1}\right) \\ \dots \dots b\left(k_{\mu-1}; N - k_1 - \dots - k_{\mu-2}, \frac{k_{\mu-1}}{N - k_1 - \dots - k_{\mu-2}}\right), \\ \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

PROOF:  $\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu} = \frac{N!}{k_1! k_2! \dots k_\mu!}$

$$= \frac{N!}{k_1! (N-k_1)!} \cdot \frac{(N-k_1)!}{k_2! (N-k_1-k_2)!} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{(N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2})!}{(N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-1})! k_{\mu-1}!}$$

$$= \binom{N}{k_1} \binom{N-k_1}{k_2} \dots \binom{N-k_1-k_2-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}{k_{\mu-1}}.$$

$$\frac{\prod_{i=1}^{\mu} (k_i)^{k_i}}{N^N} = \left(\frac{k_1}{N}\right)^{k_1} \cdot \left(\frac{k_2}{N}\right)^{k_2} \cdot \dots \cdot \left(\frac{k_\mu}{N}\right)^{k_\mu}, \text{ with}$$

$$k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 0 \text{ and } k_\mu = N - k_1 - k_2 - \dots - k_{\mu-1}.$$

From these facts, (3:2) can be written as a

"telescoping product",

$$(3:2') \quad S_\mu = \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 0 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N}} \left\{ \binom{N}{k_1} \left(\frac{k_1}{N}\right)^{k_1} \left(\frac{N-k_1}{N}\right)^{N-k_1} \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \binom{N-k_1}{k_2} \left(\frac{k_2}{N-k_1}\right)^{k_2} \left(\frac{N-k_1-k_2}{N-k_1}\right)^{N-k_1-k_2} \right\} \dots$$

$$\dots \left\{ \binom{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}{k_{\mu-1}} \left(\frac{k_{\mu-1}}{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}\right)^{k_{\mu-1}} \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \frac{\binom{N-k_1 \dots -k_{\mu-1}}{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}}{\left(\frac{k_{\mu-1}}{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}\right)^{k_{\mu-1}}} \right\}, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

By the hypothesis of theorem 4, (3:3) follows immediately from (3:2') and the theorem is proved.

Again (2:19) can be used to compute the exact probability distribution because this formula is not directly dependent on the value of  $r$  but rather on the value of  $S_\mu$  which must be computed by either (3:2) or 3:3).

3:4. A numerical example. Consider  $G_1$  to be defined by  $N = 8$  and  $r = 1$ . The values of the auxiliary sums as computed by (3:3) are:

$$S_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = b(1;8, 1/8) + b(2;8, 1/4) + b(3;8, 3/8) + b(4;8, 1/2) \\ + b(5;8, 5/8) + b(6;8, 3/4) + b(7;8, 7/8).$$

Since  $\binom{N}{k} = \binom{N}{N-k}$ , it follows from the hypothesis of

theorem 4 that  $\binom{N}{k} \left(\frac{k}{N}\right)^k \left(\frac{N-k}{N}\right)^{N-k} = \binom{N}{N-k} \left(\frac{N-k}{N}\right)^{N-k} \left(\frac{k}{N}\right)^k$

and as a result,

$$(48) \quad b(k;N, \frac{k}{N}) = b(N-k;N, \frac{N-k}{N}) \text{ and } S_2 \text{ becomes:}$$

$$S_2 = 2b(1;8, 1/8) + 2b(2;8, 1/4) + 2b(3;8, 3/8) + b(4;8, 1/2) .$$

Using tables of the binomial distribution [12.] for the values which it contains and computation by means of the hypothesis of theorem 4 for other values:

$$S_2 = .785,391,8 + .622,924,8 + .563,263,8 + .273,437,6$$

$$S_2 = 2.245,018,0$$

$$S_3 = b(1;8, 1/8) [2b(1;7, 1/7) + 2b(2;7, 2/7) + 2b(3;7, 3/7)] \\ + b(2;8, 1/4) [2b(1;6, 1/6) + 2b(2;6, 1/3) + b(3;6, 1/2)] \\ + b(3;8, 3/8) [2b(1;5, 1/5) + 2b(2;5, 2/5)] \\ + b(4;8, 1/2) [2b(1;4, 1/4) + b(2;4, 1/2)] \\ + b(5;8, 5/8) [2b(1;3, 1/3)] + b(6;8, 3/4)b(1;2, 1/2)$$

$$S_3 = .792,514,8 + .552,749,6 + .425,376,8 + 333,252,1 \\ + .250,339,4 + .155,731,2$$

$$S_3 = 2.509,963,9$$

$$S_4 = b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7})[2b(1;6,^{1/6}) + 2b(2;6,^{1/3}) \\ + b(3;6,^{1/2})] + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(2;7,^{2/7})[2b(1;5,^{1/5}) \\ + 2b(2;5,^{2/5})] + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(3;7,^{3/7})[2b(1;4,^{1/4}) \\ + b(2;4,^{1/2})] + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(4;7,^{4/7})[2b(1;3,^{1/3})] \\ + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(5;7,^{5/7})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\ + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(1;6,^{1/6})[2b(1;5,^{1/5}) + 2b(2;5,^{2/5})] \\ + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(2;6,^{1/3})2b(1;4,^{1/4}) + b(2;4,^{1/2}) \\ + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(3;6,^{1/2})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \\ + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(4;6,^{2/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\ + b(3;8,^{3/8})b(1;5,^{1/5})[2b(1;4,^{1/4}) + b(2;4,^{1/2})] \\ + b(3;8,^{3/8})b(2;5,^{2/5})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \\ + b(3;8,^{3/8})b(3;5,^{3/5})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\ + b(4;8,^{1/2})b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \\ + b(4;8,^{1/2})b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\ + b(5;8,^{5/8})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2})$$

$$S_4 = .276,374,8 + .139,056,3 + .140,590,7 + .102,539,1 \\ + .102,539,1 + .062,584,8 + .189,056,3 \\ + .124,969,5 + .086,517,3 + .086,517,3 + .140,590,7 \\ + .048,666,0 + .051,269,6 + .062,584,9$$

$$S_4 = 1.715,120,9$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_5 = & b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7}) \left\{ b(1;6,^{1/6}) \left[ 2b(1;5,^{1/5}) \right. \right. \\
& + 2b(2;5,^{2/5}) \left. \right] + b(2;6,^{1/3}) \left[ 2b(1;4,^{1/4}) + b(2;4,^{1/2}) \right] \\
& + b(3;6,^{1/2})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) + b(4;6,^{2/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \left. \right\} \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(2;7,^{2/7}) \left\{ b(1;5,^{1/5}) \left[ 2b(1;4,^{1/4}) \right. \right. \\
& + b(2;4,^{1/2}) \left. \right] + b(2;5,^{2/5})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \\
& + b(3;5,^{3/5})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \left. \right\} + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(3;7,^{3/7}) \\
& \cdot \left\{ b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) + b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \right. \\
& + b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \left. \right\} \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(1;6,^{1/6}) \left\{ b(1;5,^{1/5}) \left[ 2b(1;4,^{1/4}) \right. \right. \\
& + b(2;4,^{1/2}) \left. \right] + b(2;5,^{2/5}) \left[ 2b(1;3,^{1/3}) + b(1;2,^{1/2}) \right] \left. \right\} \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(2;6,^{1/3}) \left\{ b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \right. \\
& + b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \left. \right\} \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(3;6,^{1/2})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(3;8,^{3/8})b(1;5,^{1/5}) \left\{ b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \right. \\
& + b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \left. \right\} \\
& + b(3;8,^{3/8})b(2;5,^{2/5})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(4;8,^{1/2})b(1;4,^{1/4})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2})
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_5 = & .094,528,2 + .062,484,7 + .043,258,7 + .025,634,8 \\
& + .062,484,7 + .038,452,1 + .021,629,3 + .043,258,7 \\
& + .021,629,3 + .025,634,8 + .062,484,7 + .038,452,1 \\
& + .021,629,3 + .038,452,1 + .019,226,0 + .021,629,3 \\
& + .043,258,7 + .021,629,3 + .021,629,3 + .025,634,8
\end{aligned}$$

$$S_5 = .753,020,9$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_6 = & b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7})b(1;6,^{1/6}) \left\{ b(1;5,^{1/5}) \left[ 2b(1;4,^{1/4}) \right. \right. \\
& + b(2;4,^{1/2}) \left. \right] + b(2;5,^{2/5}) \left[ 2b(1;3,^{1/3}) + b(1;2,^{1/2}) \right] \left. \right\} \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7})b(2;6,^{1/3}) \left\{ b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \right.
\end{aligned}$$





$$\begin{aligned}
& + b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \} \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7})b(3;6,^{1/2})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(2;7,^{2/7})b(1;5,^{1/5})b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(2;7,^{2/7})b(1;5,^{1/5})b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(2;7,^{2/7})b(2;5,^{2/5})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(3;7,^{3/7})b(1;4,^{1/4})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(1;6,^{1/6})b(1;5,^{1/5})b(1;4,^{1/4})2b(1;3,^{1/3}) \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(1;6,^{1/6})b(1;5,^{1/5})b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(1;6,^{1/6})b(2;5,^{2/5})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(3;8,^{3/8})b(1;5,^{1/5})b(1;4,^{1/4})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2})
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_6 = & .061,283,1 + .028,839,1 + .010,814,7 + .019,226,1 \\
& + .009,613,0 + .009,613,0 + .010,814,7 + .019,226,1 \\
& + .009,613,0 + .009,613,0 + .009,613,0 + .010,814,7
\end{aligned}$$

$$S_6 = .209,093,3$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_7 = & b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7})b(1;6,^{1/6})b(1;5,^{1/5}) \{ b(1;4,^{1/4}) \\
& 2b(1;3,^{1/3}) + b(2;4,^{1/2})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \} + b(1;8,^{1/8}) \\
& b(1;7,^{1/7})b(1;6,^{1/6})b(2;5,^{2/5})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(1;7,^{1/7})b(2;6,^{1/3})b(1;4,^{1/4}) \\
& b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) + b(1;8,^{1/8})b(2;7,^{2/7}) \\
& b(1;5,^{1/5})b(1;4,^{1/4})b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2}) \\
& + b(2;8,^{1/4})b(1;6,^{1/6})b(1;5,^{1/5})b(1;4,^{1/4}) \\
& b(1;3,^{1/3})b(1;2,^{1/2})
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
S_7 = & .014,419,6 + .004,806,5 + .004,806,5 + .004,806,5 \\
& + .004,806,5
\end{aligned}$$

$$S_7 = .033,645,6$$



$$S_8 = b(1;8,1/8)b(1;7,1/7)b(1;6,1/6)b(1;5,1/5) \\ b(1;4,1/4)b(1;3,1/3)b(1;2,1/2)$$

$$S_8 = .002,403,3$$

Using these results together with table 1 and (2:19),  
the exact probability distribution is:

$$P_1 = .405,628$$

$$P_2 = .408,440$$

$$P_3 = .153,895$$

$$P_4 = .028,893$$

$$P_5 = .002,970$$

$$P_6 = .000,169$$

$$P_7 = ,000,005$$

$$P_8 = .000,000,06$$

#### 4. THE HOLLOW CASE

4:1. Preliminaries. If the mapping of  $\Omega$  into  $\Omega$  is restricted so that no point is permitted to map into itself, the mapping is called hollow. The subclass of functions which represents this type is called  $H_{\{r_i\}}$ . Analogous to  $G_{\{r_i\}}$ ,  $H_{\{r_i\}}$  is composed of functions,  $f$ , under which each  $x_i \in \Omega$  has  $r_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , images in  $\Omega$ .

Hollow mapping is of special interest in the field of social psychology. In sociometric tests an individual chooses the individuals in a group with whom he wishes to be associated. In some cases a variety in the number of choices made by an individual is permitted. In other cases, all individuals must make an equal number of choices. In still other instances only the prime choice is made. If each of the  $N$  individuals making the choices is considered to correspond to a point  $x_i$  and if his choices for associates correspond to the  $r_i$  images of  $x_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , then a hollow mapping situation exists provided no individual is permitted to choose to be associated with himself.

The number of choices permitted in different instances gives rise to different subsets of hollow mappings.

The situation where there is a variety in the number of answers by different individuals in the group is covered by the class,  $H_{\{r_1\}}$ . If  $H_r$  and  $H_1$  are subsets of functions defined for the hollow case as  $G_r$  and  $G_1$  were for the general case, then  $H_r$  covers the situation where each individual in the group chooses the same number of associates and  $H_1$  covers the case where each individual makes only the one best choice.  $H_r$  and  $H_1$  are considered in chapter 5.

4:2. The auxiliary sums and the exact probability distribution of the number of components. Since  $H_{\{r_1\}} \subset G_{\{r_1\}}$ , the results of chapter 2 can be adapted to the hollow case. To make the event,  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$ , possible under hollow mapping there must be at least two elements in the subset  $\omega_{\alpha_j}$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ . This means the  $k_j$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ , must be greater than one. The matrix representation,  $B^f = (b_{ij}^f)$  is different in that  $b_{jj}^f \equiv 0$  for all  $j = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . Consequently, the required form of  $B^f$ , which is equivalent to the event,  $E(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  given in (2:8), is modified in that the main diagonal elements of the principal minors,  $B_{11}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ , are all zeros. Therefore, the  $r_{1j}$  ones in the  $j$  th row of  $B_{11}$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$  and  $j = 1, 2, \dots, k_1$  may appear only in any of the remaining  $(k_1 - 1)$  positions if  $B^f$  is to have the form equivalent to (2:8). At the same time if no restrictions are placed on



the form of  $B^f$ , the ones in any row could appear in any of  $(N - 1)$  positions. Since  $k_j > 1$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, \mu$ , there could be at most  $\left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$  subsets formed from the index set,  $\mathcal{I}$ , where  $\left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$  is the largest integer in the quotient  $\frac{N}{2}$ . Moreover, there could be at most  $\left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$  components induced in  $\mathcal{I}$  by a function,  $f$ .

Using the above facts, formulas for the auxiliary sums,  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$ , and for the probability,  $P_c$ , of exactly  $c$  components,  $c = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$ , must be modified in order to make them valid for the hollow case. The theorems which were proved for the general case are now listed with proper modifications for the hollow case. They are numbered with primes to show the correspondence between the cases.

**THEOREM 1'.** If  $N$  is the number of elements in  $\mathcal{I}$  and  $r_v$  is the number of images of the point  $x_v \in \mathcal{I}$ ,  $v = 1, 2, \dots, N$ , and if  $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu)$  is defined by (2:2) then the value of  $S_\mu$  is given by

$$(4:1) \quad S = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^N \binom{N-1}{r_i}^{k_i}} \sum_{k_1+k_2+\dots+k_\mu=N} \sum_{\substack{k_1 > 1 \\ k_2 > 1 \\ \vdots \\ k_\mu > 1}} (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_\mu) \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} \prod_{j=1}^{k_i} \binom{k_i-1}{r_{ij}}, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor.$$

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THEOREM 2'. If  $P_c$  is the probability of exactly  $c$  components and  $S_c^\mu$  are Stirling numbers of the second kind, then

$$(4:2) \quad S_\mu = \mu! \sum_{c=\mu}^{\left[\frac{N}{2}\right]} P_c S_c^\mu, \quad \mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left[\frac{N}{2}\right].$$

THEOREM 3'. If  $W_\mu = \frac{S_\mu}{\mu!}$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$ , given by (4:1), and if  $S_\mu^c$  are Stirling numbers of the first kind, then

$$(4:3) \quad P_c = \sum_{\mu=c}^{\left[\frac{N}{2}\right]} W_\mu S_\mu^c, \quad c = 1, 2, \dots, \left[\frac{N}{2}\right].$$

4:3. A numerical example. Consider  $H_{r_1}$  defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r_1 = (1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3)$ . The values of the auxiliary sums are, by (4:1):

$$S_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = \frac{1}{\binom{5}{1}^2 \binom{5}{2}^2 \binom{5}{3}^2} \left\{ 2 \binom{1}{1}^2 \binom{3}{2}^2 \binom{3}{3}^2 \right\} = \frac{18}{2.5 \times 10^5}$$

$$S_2 = .000,072$$

$S_3, S_4, S_5$ , and  $S_6$  all vanish.

By (4:3), the exact probability distribution for this example is:

$$P_1 = .999,964$$

$$P_2 = .000,036$$

$$P_3 = P_4 = P_5 = P_6 = 0 .$$

## 5. PARTICULAR CASES OF HOLLOW MAPPING

5:1. The class  $H_r$ . A special case of  $H_{\{r_1\}}$  for the hollow case is the class  $H_r$  which is defined as  $G_r$  was for the general case. (That is each point of  $\square$  has the same number,  $r$ , of images in  $\square$ .) Although this class was mentioned in section 4:1 and implicitly considered in section 4:2, for completeness, the exact formulas for computation are shown. The corollaries are numbered with primes to show the parallelism between the results for  $G_r$  in section 3:1 and those for  $H_r$ . The reasons for the modifications are covered in section 3:1.

COROLLARY 1'. If  $N$  is the number of points in  $\square$  and  $r$  is the number of images of each point, then it follows from theorem 1' that

$$(5:1) \quad S_\mu = \frac{1}{\binom{N-1}{r}^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 1 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N}} \binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu} \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} \binom{k_i-1}{r}^{k_i},$$

$$\mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor.$$

REMARK 1'. For purposes of computation (5:1) can be written

$$(5:1') \quad S_{\mu} = \frac{1}{[(N-1)^{(r)}]^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{\mu} > 1 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_{\mu} = N}} \binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{\mu}} \\ \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} [(k_{i-1})^{(r)}]^{k_i}, \quad \mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor.$$

Since the formula for  $P_c$  in (4:3) does not depend directly on  $r$  but rather on the values of  $S_{\mu}, \mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$ , the exact probability distribution can be computed by using this formula.

5:2 A numerical example. Consider  $H_r$  defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r = 2$ . The values of the auxiliary sums by (5:1') are:

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= 1 \\ S_2 &= \frac{1}{(20)^6} \binom{6}{3, 3} (2)^6 = \frac{20}{10^6} = .000,020 \\ S_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The resulting exact probability distribution by use of (4:3) is:

$$\begin{aligned} P_1 &= .999,990 \\ P_2 &= .000,010 \\ P_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

5:3. The class  $H_1$ . As mentioned in section 4:1,

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the subclass  $H_1$  is defined for the hollow case as  $G_1$  was for the general case. To complete the parallelism between the hollow and the general case, the formulas which apply specifically to random mapping under functions from  $H_1$  are given as they were for the class  $H_r$ .

COROLLARY 2'. If  $N$  is the number of elements in  $\Omega$  and each point in  $\Omega$  has only one image, then

$$(5:2) \quad S_\mu = \frac{1}{(N-1)^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 1 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu = N}} \binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu} \prod_{i=1}^{\mu} (k_i - 1)^{k_i},$$

$$\mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor.$$

In order to make the tables of the binomial probability distribution [12.] useful an alternative form of (5:2) is presented in

THEOREM 4'. If  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$  is given

by (5:2) and if  $b(k; n, p) = \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}$  is

the binomial distribution, then

$$(5:3) \quad S_\mu = \frac{(N-\mu)^N}{(N-1)^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 1 \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_\mu \leq (N-1)}} b\left(k_1; N, \frac{k_1-1}{N-\mu}\right) \\ b\left(k_2; N-k_1, \frac{k_2-1}{N-k_1-\mu+1}\right) \dots b\left(k_{\mu-1}; N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}, \frac{k_{\mu-1}-1}{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}-2}\right), \\ \mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor.$$



PROOF:

$$\binom{N}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu} = \binom{N}{k_1} \binom{N-k_1}{k_2} \dots \binom{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}{k_{\mu-1}}$$

$$k_1, k_2, \dots, k_\mu > 1$$

$$(k_\mu - 1) = (N - k_1 - k_2 - \dots - k_{\mu-1} - 1)$$

Therefore, (5:2) can be written as a "telescoping product",

$$(5:2') \quad S_\mu = \frac{(N-\mu)^N}{(N-1)^N} \sum_{\substack{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_{\mu-1} \\ k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_{\mu-1} \leq N-1}} \left\{ \binom{N}{k_1} \left( \frac{k_1-1}{N-\mu} \right)^{k_1} \left( \frac{N-k_1-\mu+1}{N-\mu} \right)^{N-k_1} \right\} \\ \left\{ \binom{N-k_1}{k_2} \left( \frac{k_2-1}{N-k_1-\mu+1} \right)^{k_2} \left( \frac{N-k_1-k_2-\mu+2}{N-k_1-\mu+1} \right)^{N-k_1-k_2} \right\} \dots \\ \dots \left\{ \binom{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}}{k_{\mu-1}} \left( \frac{k_{\mu-1}-1}{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}-2} \right)^{k_{\mu-1}} \left( \frac{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-1}-1}{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-2}-2} \right)^{N-k_1-\dots-k_{\mu-1}} \right\} \\ \mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor.$$

Using the notation of the hypothesis of theorem 4', (5:3) follows and the theorem is proved.

The formula which is used to compute the exact distribution after  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, \left\lfloor \frac{N}{2} \right\rfloor$  has been computed by (5:2) or (5:3) is (4:3) because it does not depend on the value of  $r$  but on the value of  $S_\mu$ .

5:4 A numerical example. Consider  $H_1$  defined by  $N = 8$  and  $r = 1$ . The values of the auxiliary sums as



found by use of (5:3) are

$$S_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = \frac{(6)^8}{(7)^8} \left[ 2b(2; 8, 1/6) + 2b(3; 8, 1/3) + b(4; 8, 1/2) \right]$$

$$S_2 = .390,607,4$$

$$S_3 = \frac{(5)^8}{(7)^8} \left[ 2b(2; 8, 1/5)b(2; 6, 1/4) + b(2; 8, 1/5)b(3; 6, 1/2) \right. \\ \left. + 2b(3; 8, 2/5)b(2; 5, 1/3) + b(4; 8, 3/5)b(2; 4, 1/2) \right]$$

$$S_3 = .036,354,0$$

$$S_4 = \frac{(4)^8}{(7)^8} \left[ b(2; 8, 1/4)b(2; 6, 1/3)b(2; 4, 1/2) \right]$$

$$S_4 = .000,437,1$$

$S_5, S_6, S_7$ , and  $S_8$  all vanish.

By (4:3), the exact distribution is:

$$P_1 = .816,705$$

$$P_2 = .177,327$$

$$P_3 = .005,950$$

$$P_4 = .000,018$$

$$P_5 = P_6 = P_7 = P_8 = 0$$

## 6. A BINOMIAL APPROXIMATION OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF COMPONENTS

6:1. Introductory considerations. Since the exact distribution is known, an approximate distribution is useful only if it is more easily computed. The above numerical examples, although restricted to relatively trivial cases show that considerable work is involved in the computation of the exact distribution. Therefore, an approximation is worthy of investigation.

Because the distribution of the number of components is discrete and since it is conceivable, in some applications, that the set  $\bigcup$  will be composed of a relatively small number of elements, it seems feasible to use a distribution of the discrete type for the approximation. A binomial approximation is therefore found and the results have proved to be rather good.

6:2. Derivation of an approximate probability distribution. The binomial distribution has only two parameters,  $N$  and  $p$ . With  $N$  fixed, only  $p$  needs to be estimated. Since the mean of the binomial distribution equals  $N$  times  $p$ , an approximation of  $p$  could be obtained

by equating the expected value of the random variable,  $c$ , which is the number of components in  $\Omega$ , with the expected value of  $c$  if it were distributed as the binomial distribution. However, the expected value of the number,  $c$ , of components is not easily obtained in terms of one or more of the  $S_\mu$ ,  $\mu = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . Kruskal [5.] gave the result for the special case where the mapping was single-valued. Since this seems to be quite difficult in the general case, it is convenient to consider a related variable,  $n^{c-1}$ , where  $n$  is a positive integer. For such a variable the following theorem is proved.

THEOREM 5: If  $c$  is the number of components in  $\Omega$ ,

$n$  is a positive integer and  $S_\mu$  the auxiliary sums given by (2:12'), then the expected value of  $n^{c-1}$  is given by

$$(6:1) \quad E(n^{c-1}) = \sum_{\mu=1}^n \binom{n-1}{\mu-1} \frac{S_\mu}{\mu}.$$

PROOF: Consider the arbitrary quantity,  $A$ , defined as:

$$A = \sum_{\mu=1}^n \binom{n-1}{\mu-1} \frac{S_\mu}{\mu}$$

$$\text{From (2:15): } S_\mu = \mu! \sum_{j=\mu}^n P_j \mathcal{S}_j^\mu.$$

Therefore, 
$$A = \sum_{\mu=1}^n \binom{n-1}{\mu-1} (\mu-1)! \left[ \sum_{j=\mu}^N P_j \mathcal{J}_j^{\mu} \right].$$

The coefficient of  $P_c$  in  $A = \sum_{\mu=1}^c \binom{n-1}{\mu-1} (\mu-1)! \mathcal{J}_c^{\mu}.$

By changing the notation slightly, the coefficient of

$$P_c \text{ in } A = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\mu=1}^c n^{(\mu)} \mathcal{J}_c^{\mu}.$$

But Jordan [9], section 58, formula 2, shows

$$n^c = \sum_{\mu=1}^c \mathcal{J}_c^{\mu} (n)_{\mu}, \text{ where } (n)_{\mu} = n(n-1)\dots(n-\mu+1) = n^{(\mu)}.$$

Therefore, the coefficient of  $P_c$  in  $A = n^{c-1}$ ; and by the definition of the expected value,  $A = E(n^{c-1})$  and (6.1) follows. This completes the proof of theorem 5.

Using (6:1) the results for a few integers are:

$$(a) \quad E(1^{c-1}) = 1$$

$$(b) \quad E(2^{c-1}) = 1 + \frac{S_2}{2}$$

$$(c) \quad E(3^{c-1}) = 1 + S_2 + \frac{S_3}{3}$$

Since  $E(1^{c-1})$  gives a trivial result and since  $E(2^{c-1})$  is obviously the simplest expected value to compute, it is convenient to use this to find a binomial approximation of the distribution of the number of components.

In order to find the parameter  $p$  which will determine the binomial distribution for fixed  $N$ , it is necessary to prove the following theorem.

THEOREM 6. If  $(c-1)$  is a random variable distributed binomially with parameters  $(N-1)$  and  $p$ , then

$$(6:2) \quad E(n^{c-1}) = [1 + (n-1)p]^{N-1}$$

PROOF: By hypothesis:  $b(c-1; N-1, p) = \binom{N-1}{c-1} p^{c-1} q^{N-c}$

$$\text{Therefore, } E(n^{c-1}) = \sum_{c=1}^N n^{c-1} \binom{N-1}{c-1} p^{c-1} q^{N-c}.$$

This can be rewritten:

$$E(n^{c-1}) = \sum_{c=1}^N \binom{N-1}{c-1} (np)^{c-1} q^{N-c} = (q + np)^{N-1}$$

Since  $q = 1 - p$ , (6:2) follows and the proof of theorem 6 is complete.

An estimate of  $p$  which will determine the binomial approximation of the distribution of the number of components is now possible by equating the two values of  $E(2^{c-1})$  obtained from theorems 5 and 6. This is not an estimate in the statistical sense. No sampling is involved. It is simply an approximation which results from equating the expected value of  $2^{c-1}$  if  $c$  is the number of components in  $\bigcup$  with the expected value of  $2^{c-1}$  if  $(c-1)$  has binomial distribution with parameters  $(N-1)$  and  $p$ .

Using the results in (6:1) and (6:2) with  $n = 2$  and equating the expected values of  $2^{c-1}$ , the result for the estimate of  $p$  is:

$$(6:3) \quad p = \left[ 1 + \frac{S_2}{2} \right]^{\frac{1}{N-1}} - 1.$$

Using (6:3) and denoting the approximate probability of  $c$  components by  $Q_c$ , the formula is

$$(6:4) \quad Q_c = \binom{N-1}{c-1} p^{c-1} q^{N-c}, \quad c = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

It is noted that this binomial approximation of the distribution of the number of components can be determined by finding only the value of  $S_2$ . For the general case formula (2:12'), (3:1') or (3:3) can be used, depending on the values of  $r$ . After  $S_2$  has been found,  $p$  is found by (6:3) and the approximate distribution is found by (6:4).

For the hollow case, the same procedure may be used and the same formulas apply with the exception that  $N$  is replaced by  $\left[ \frac{N}{2} \right]$  throughout. For completeness the formulas are listed with primes as they apply to the hollow case.

$$(6:3') \quad p = \left[ 1 + \frac{S_2}{2} \right]^{\frac{1}{\left[ \frac{N}{2} \right] - 1}} - 1$$

$$(6:4') \quad Q_c = \binom{\left[\frac{N}{2}\right] - 1}{c-1} p^{c-1} q^{\left[\frac{N}{2}\right] - c}, \quad c = 1, 2, \dots, \left[\frac{N}{2}\right].$$

6:3 Numerical examples. In connection with the exact distribution discussed previously six numerical examples were presented to illustrate each of the classes of random mapping functions. These same examples are now presented so that the approximate distribution of the number of components can be compared with the exact distribution. Accordingly, an estimate of  $p$  is found for each example and the approximate probabilities are shown together with the exact probabilities, (found earlier) for the general and hollow cases in tables 2 and 3 respectively.

If  $G_{r,1}$  is defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r = (1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3)$ , then, from section 2:3,  $S_2 = .065,705$  and by (6:3)  $p = .006,486$ . The values of  $Q_c$  computed by (6:4) are shown in the first section of table 2.

If  $G_r$  is defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r = 2$ , then, from section 3:2,  $S_2 = \frac{44}{9375}$  and, by (6:4),  $p = .000,467$ .

The values of  $Q_c$  computed by (6:4) are given in the second section of table 2.

If  $G_1$  is defined by  $N = 8$  and  $r = 1$ , from section 3:4,  $S_2 = 2.245,018$  and therefore  $p = .113,506,6$ . Again the values of  $Q_c$  are given in the third section of table 2.

If  $H_{r_1}$  is defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r = (1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3)$ , then  $S_2 = .000,072$  by section 4:3. Using (6:3'),  $p = .000,018$ . The values of  $Q_c$  are computed by (6:4') and given in the first section of table 3.

If  $H_r$  is defined by  $N = 6$  and  $r = 2$ , by section 5:2,  $S_2 = .000,020$  and by (6:3'),  $p = .000,005$ . The values of  $Q_c$  as computed by (6:4') are given in the second section of table 3.

If  $H_1$  is defined by  $N = 8$  and  $r = 1$ , by section 5:4,  $S_2 = .390,607,4$  and by (6:3'),  $p = .061,270,5$ . The values of  $Q_c$  are given in the third section of table 3.

The agreement between the tabulated values is reasonably good. In the hollow case, there is virtually no difference between the exact and approximate values when  $N = 6$ ,  $r_1 = (1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3)$  and when  $N = 6$ ,  $r = 2$ . In the general case, agreement is to at least the third decimal place for these examples. When  $N = 8$  and  $r = 1$ , there is variation but there is definite agreement in the pattern of the distributions.

For larger values of  $N$  the computation of the exact distribution is cumbersome. Thus, comparison becomes difficult. Katz [13.] has shown that the exact probability of one component when  $N = 20$  and  $r = 1$  is  $.264,68$ . The approximate probability given by (6:4) for this set of values is:  $Q_1 = .295,227$ . This indicates very little change in accuracy in the probability of one component for larger values of  $N$ .



TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF THE EXACT AND APPROXIMATE DISTRIBUTIONS OF  
THE NUMBER OF COMPONENTS IN THE GENERAL CASE

N = 6, $r_1 = (1,1,2,2,3,3)$		N = 6 ,		r = 2		N = 8 ,		r = 1	
C	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$	
1	.967,522	.967,988	.997,656	.997,667	.405,628	.430,258			
2	.032,291	.031,597	.002,343	.002,331	.408,440	.385,631			
3	.000,187	.000412	.000,001	.000,002	.153,895	.148,129			
4	—	.000,003	—	—	.028,893	.031,611			
5	—	—	—	—	.002,970	.004,047			
6	—	—	—	—	.000,169	.000,311			
7	—	—	—	—	.000,005	.000,013			
8	—	—	—	—	.000,000	.000,000			

TABLE 3  
COMPARISON OF THE EXACT AND APPROXIMATE DISTRIBUTIONS OF  
THE NUMBER OF COMPONENTS IN THE HOLLOW CASE

C	N = 6, $r_1 = (1,1,2,2,3,3)$		N = 6,		r = 2		N = 8,		r = 1	
	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$	$P_C$	$Q_C$
1	.999,964	.999,964	.999,990	.999,990	.999,990	.999,990	.816,705	.827,221		
2	.000,036	.000,036	.000,010	.000,010	.000,010	.000,010	.177,327	.161,977		
3	—	.000,000	—	—	.000,000	.000,000	.005,950	.010,572		
4	—	—	—	—	—	—	.000,018	.000,230		

## 7. SUMMARY

After Kruskal [5.] had solved the problem of the expected number of components for a single-valued random mapping function, the question of the probability distribution of the number of components was a logical next step. Moreover, the question of what would happen if the mapping were multiple-valued seemed worthy of consideration. By a method somewhat analogous to that used by Feller [2.] for the combination of events but more nearly like that used by Katz [11.] , the exact probability distribution of the number of components of a multiple-valued random mapping function was found. Results for particular mappings which restricted in various ways the number of images of each point became special cases of the general solution.

Hollow mapping in the sense that no point was permitted to map into itself was considered because of the interest in this type in application to social situations. The probability distribution for this case followed very readily from the general solution.

Numerical examples, which were included as illustrations, revealed that the amount of computation increases enormously with increase in  $N$ . The binomial approximation, which was presented, does minimize the work but sacrifices some of the accuracy.

Rubin and Sitgreaves [14.] , in a paper made available after the main part of the problem which is considered in this thesis was completed, showed some results which are related to the problem. Dealing only with single-valued functions (corresponding to the class  $G_1$  in the thesis) they have found the distribution of the number of components by a completely different method. Thus, for single-valued functions their result overlaps the result for the class of functions,  $G_1$ , presented here. They also considered other topics dealing with size and composition of components. Questions concerning the size and composition of components formed under multiple-valued random mapping functions remain unanswered.

It is hoped that the results obtained here will be useful in applications. In social situations, divisions into groups are bound to occur. Whether these divisions follow essentially the theoretical distribution or whether they deviate significantly so that they must be accounted for on the basis of age, prejudice, etc. rather than on chance remains as part of the problem of the application of the results presented in this thesis.

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