

A generalization of carries processes and Eulerian numbers

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Abstract

We study a generalization of Holte's amazing matrix, the transition probability matrix of the Markov chains of the 'carries' in a *non-standard* numeration system. The stationary distributions are explicitly described by the numbers which can be regarded as a generalization of the Eulerian numbers and the MacMahon numbers. We also show that similar properties hold even for the numeration systems with the negative bases.

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1 Introduction and statements of results

The transition probability matrix so-called 'amazing matrix' of the Markov chain of the 'carries' has very nice properties [5], and has unexpected connection to the Markov chains of riffle shuffles [2, 3]. Diaconis and Fulman [3] studies a variant of the carries process, type B carries process. Novelli and Thibon studies the carries process in terms of noncommutative symmetric functions [7]. This paper studies a generalization of the carries process which includes Diaconis and Fulman's type B carries process as a special case. We study the transition probability matrices of the Markov chains of the carries in the numeration systems with non-standard digit sets. We show that the matrices have the eigenvectors which can be perfectly described by a generalization of Eulerian numbers and the MacMahon numbers [8, 6, 1, 3]. We also show that similar properties hold even for the numeration systems with negative bases.

1.1 Numeration system

Throughout the paper, b denotes a positive integer and $\mathcal{D} = \{d, d+1, \dots, d+b-1\}$ denotes a set of integers containing 0. Therefore, $-b < d < b$. Then, we have a numeration system (b, \mathcal{D}) : Suppose that an integer x has a representation of the form,

$$x = (x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_0)_b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} x_0 + x_1 b + x_2 b^2 + \cdots + x_k b^k, \quad x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathcal{D}, x_k \neq 0. \quad (1)$$

Then, it can be easily shown that this representation is uniquely determined for x and

$$\left\{ (x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_0)_b \mid k \geq 0, x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathcal{D} \right\} = \begin{cases} \mathbb{Z} & d \neq 0, -b+1, \\ \mathbb{N} & d = 0, \\ -\mathbb{N} & d = -b+1. \end{cases}$$

is closed under the addition, where \mathbb{N} denotes the set of non-negative integers.

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1.2 Carries process

Let $\{X_{i,j}\}_{1 \leq i \leq n, j \geq 0}$ be the set of independent random variables each of which is distributed uniformly over \mathcal{D} . Define the two stochastic processes (A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots) , and (C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots) in the following way: $C_0 = 0$ with probability one. $(A_i)_{i \geq 0}$ is a sequence of \mathcal{D} -valued random variables satisfying

$$A_i \equiv C_i + X_{1,i} + \dots + X_{n,i} \pmod{b}, \quad i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

and

$$C_i = \frac{C_{i-1} + X_{1,i-1} + \dots + X_{n,i-1} - A_{i-1}}{b}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

(See Figure 1.) It is obvious that (C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots) is a Markov process, which we call the *carries process* with n summands or simply *n-carry process* over (b, \mathcal{D}) .

$$\begin{array}{rcccccc}
 & \cdots & C_4 & C_3 & C_2 & C_1 & C_0 \\
 \cdots & X_{1,4} & X_{1,3} & X_{1,2} & X_{1,1} & X_{1,0} & \\
 \cdots & X_{2,4} & X_{2,3} & X_{2,2} & X_{2,1} & X_{2,0} & \\
 \cdots & X_{3,4} & X_{3,3} & X_{3,2} & X_{3,1} & X_{3,0} & \\
 \cdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\
 +) & \cdots & X_{n,4} & X_{n,3} & X_{n,2} & X_{n,1} & X_{n,0} \\
 \hline
 \cdots & A_4 & A_3 & A_2 & A_1 & A_0 &
 \end{array}$$

Figure 1: Carries process

1.3 A generalization of Eulerian numbers

Let $p \geq 1$ be a real number and n a positive integer. Then we define an array of numbers $v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n)$ for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ and $j = 0, 1, \dots, n+1$ by

$$v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n) = \sum_{r=0}^j (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} [p(j-r) + 1]^{n-i}, \quad (2)$$

and define $v_{i,-1}^{(p)}(n) = 0$. We denote

$$\left\langle \begin{array}{c} n \\ j \end{array} \right\rangle_p = v_{0,j}^{(p)}(n),$$

which can be regarded as a generalization of the Eulerian numbers. In fact, $\left\{ \left\langle \begin{array}{c} n \\ j \end{array} \right\rangle_p \right\}$ forms the array of the ordinary Eulerian numbers when $p = 1$, and MacMahon numbers $[8, 6, 1, 3]$ when $p = 2$.

1.4 Statement of the result

Throughout the paper, $\Omega = \Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$ denotes the state space of the n -carry process over (b, \mathcal{D}) , that is, the set of possible values of carries, and $p_{i,j}$ denotes the transition probability $\Pr(C_{i+1} = j \mid C_i = i)$ for $i, j \in \Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$. For computational convenience, it is desirable for the transition probability matrix to have indices starting from 0. We define $\tilde{p}_{i,j} = p_{i+s,j+s}$, where s is the minimal element of $\Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$. Then, we define the matrix P by

$$P = (\tilde{p}_{i,j})_{0 \leq i, j \leq \#\Omega - 1}, \quad (3)$$

where $\#\Omega$ denotes the size of the state space, which is explicitly computed in Lemma 1. P is the central object of this paper.

Remark 1. As we will show in the later sections, this matrix P which we regard as a generalization of Holte's amazing matrix is determined only by b, n and p , and therefore these amazing matrices with same n and p form a commutative family. Holte's amazing matrix corresponds to the case when $p = 1$ and Diaconis and Fulman's type B carries process corresponds to the case when $p = 2$.

Theorem 1. Let $\Omega = \Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$ be the state space of the n -carry process over (b, \mathcal{D}) , and $m = \#\Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$. let p be defined by

$$p = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\{(n-1)(-l)\}} & (n-1)l \notin \mathbb{Z}, \\ 1 & (n-1)l \in \mathbb{Z}, \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where $l = d/(b-1)$ and $\{x\} = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$, and let $V = \left(v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n) \right)_{0 \leq i, j \leq m-1}$. Then, the transition probability matrix P is diagonalized by V :

$$VPV^{-1} = \text{diag} \left(1, b^{-1}, \dots, b^{-(m-1)} \right).$$

In particular, by Lemma 5, the probability vector π of the stationary distribution of the carries process is

$$\pi = (\pi(s), \pi(s+1), \dots, \pi(s+m-1)) = \frac{1}{p^n n!} \left(\left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ 0 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p, \dots, \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ m-1 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p \right)$$

Remark 2. It is remarkable that our amazing matrix has the eigenvalues of the same form $1, 1/b, 1/b^2, \dots$ as those of Holte's amazing matrix.

Corollary 1. Let S_n be the sum of n independent random variables each of which is distributed uniformly over the unit interval $[0, 1]$. Then, for all positive real numbers $p \geq 1$ and integers k , the probability of S_n being in the interval $\frac{1}{p} + [k-1, k]$ is

$$\Pr \left(S_n \in \frac{1}{p} + [k-1, k] \right) = \frac{1}{p^n n!} \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p. \quad (5)$$

Remark 3. This corollary can be derived directly from the formula of the distribution of sums of independent uniform random variables in [4], and it is shown for the case $p = 2$ in [3].

Example 1. Let $p \geq 1$ be a real number. As will be shown in the later section, the array of generalized Eulerian numbers satisfies the following recursive relations

$$\left\langle \begin{matrix} n+1 \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p = (pk+1) \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p + (p(n+1-k)-1) \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k-1 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p.$$

and the boundary conditions

$$\left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ 0 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p = 1, \quad \text{and} \quad \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p = 0 \quad \text{for } k > n.$$

(See Figure 2.)

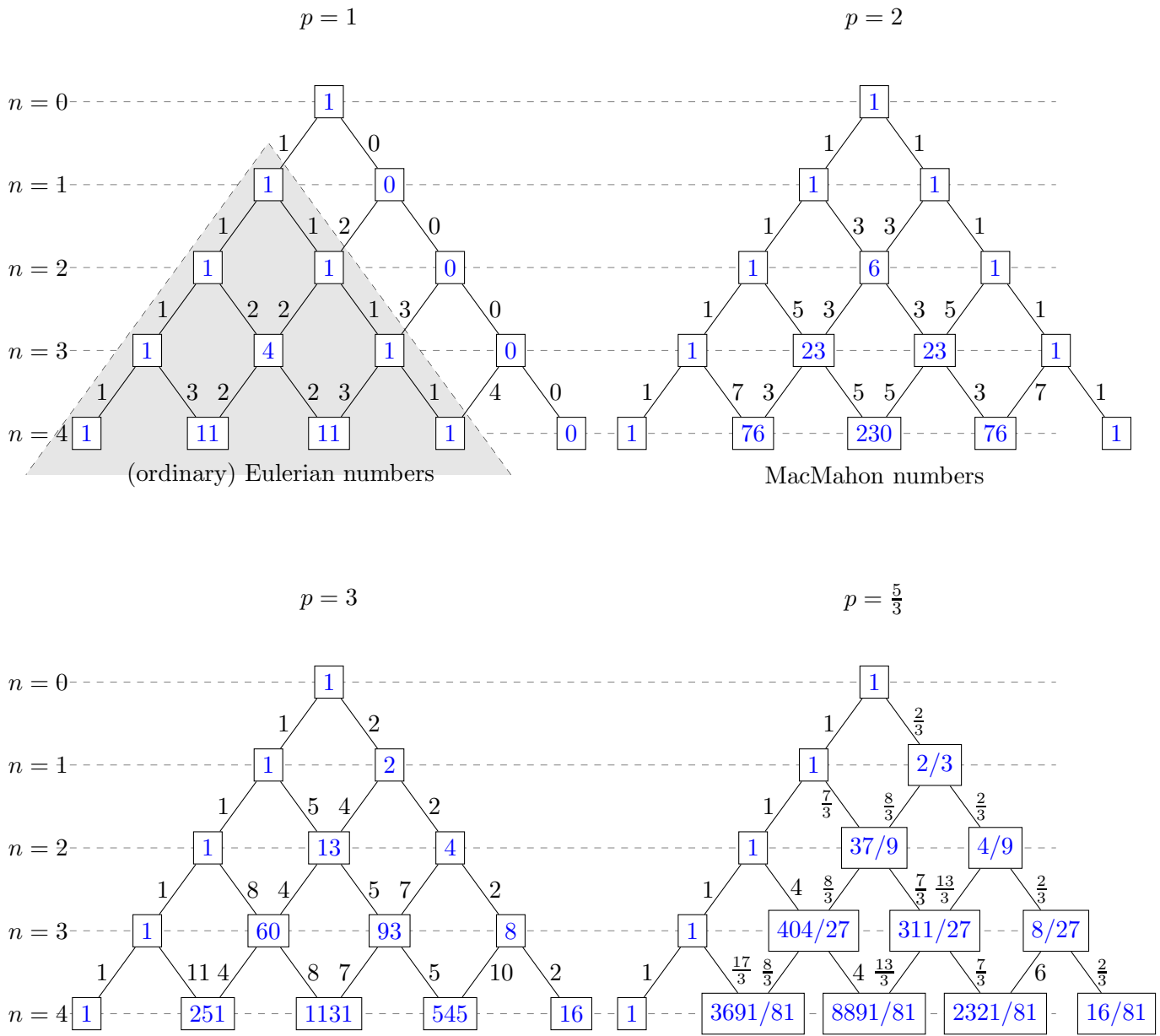
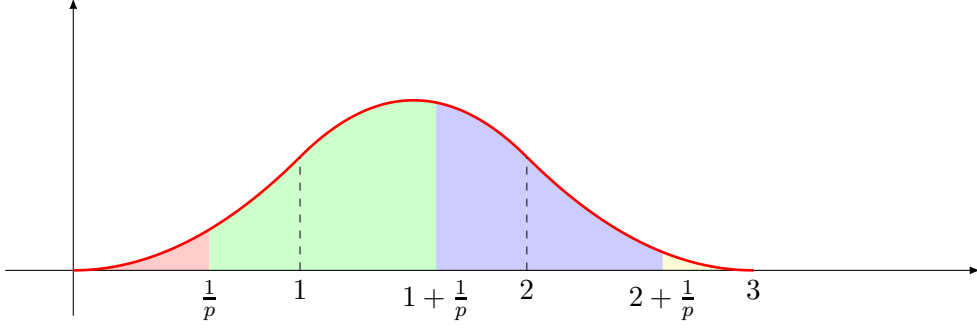


Figure 2: Arrays of generalized Eulerian numbers for $p = 1$ (upper left), $p = 2$ (upper right), $p = 3$ (lower left), and $p = \frac{5}{3}$ (lower right)

The probability density function of S_3 described in Theorem 1 is

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2/2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1, \\ -(x - \frac{3}{2})^2 + \frac{3}{4} & \text{if } 1 \leq x < 2, \\ (x - 3)^2/2 & \text{if } 2 \leq x \leq 3, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



p	$\Pr(S_3 \in 1/p + [-1, 0])$	$\Pr(S_3 \in 1/p + [0, 1])$	$\Pr(S_3 \in 1/p + [1, 2])$	$\Pr(S_3 \in 1/p + [2, 3])$
1	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{4}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	0
2	$\frac{1}{48}$	$\frac{23}{48}$	$\frac{23}{48}$	$\frac{1}{48}$
3	$\frac{1}{162}$	$\frac{60}{162}$	$\frac{93}{162}$	$\frac{8}{162}$
5/3	$\frac{27}{750}$	$\frac{404}{750}$	$\frac{311}{750}$	$\frac{8}{750}$

The probability vectors appear in the third rows of the triangles of the generalized Eulerian numbers (Figure 2).

2 Proof

2.1 State space and transition probability

Lemma 1. Let $\Omega = \Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$ be the state space of the n -carry process over the numeration system (b, \mathcal{D}) . Then, $\Omega = \{s, s + 1, \dots, t\}$ with

$$s = -\lceil (n-1)(-l) \rceil = \lfloor (n-1)l \rfloor, \quad t = \lceil (n-1)(l+1) \rceil,$$

where $l = d/(b-1)$. Therefore, the size of the state space Ω is

$$\#\Omega = \begin{cases} n+1 & (n-1)l \notin \mathbb{Z}, \\ n & (n-1)l \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{cases}$$

Proof. Suppose that we add n numbers,

$$(x_{1,\nu}x_{1,\nu-1} \cdots x_{1,1}x_{1,0})_b, (x_{2,\nu}x_{2,\nu-1} \cdots x_{2,1}x_{2,0})_b, \dots, (x_{n,\nu}x_{n,\nu-1} \cdots x_{n,1}x_{n,0})_b,$$

and get the sum $(a_{\nu+1}, a_\nu, \dots, a_1, a_0)_b$ and the carries c_0, c_1, c_2, \dots . That is, $c_0 = 0$ and

$$c_{i+1} = \frac{c_i + x_{1,i} + \cdots + x_{n,i} - a_i}{b},$$

where $a_i \in \mathcal{D}$ and $a_i \equiv c_i + x_{1,i} + \cdots + x_{n,i} \pmod{b}$. Let F be defined by

$$F = \{x_1b^{-1} + x_2b^{-2} + \cdots + x_mb^{-m} \mid x_i \in \mathcal{D}_b, m > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Then, F is a dense subset of the interval $(l, l + 1)$, where $l = d/(b - 1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} c_i = c &\iff (x_{1,i-1} \cdots x_{1,0})_b + \cdots + (x_{n,i-1} \cdots x_{n,0})_b = cb^i + (a_{i-1} \cdots a_0)_b \\ &\iff \frac{(x_{1,i-1} \cdots x_{1,0})_b}{b^i} + \cdots + \frac{(x_{n,i-1} \cdots x_{n,0})_b}{b^i} = c + \frac{(a_{i-1} \cdots a_0)_b}{b^i} \end{aligned}$$

Since $\frac{(x_{i-1}^1 \cdots x_0^1)_b}{b^i}, \dots, \frac{(x_{i-1}^n \cdots x_0^n)_b}{b^i}, \frac{(a_{i-1} \cdots a_0)_b}{b^i} \in F$, we have $c \in nF - F \subset ((n-1)l - 1, (n-1)(l+1) + 1)$. Conversely, if $c \in ((n-1)l - 1, (n-1)(l+1) + 1) \cap \mathbb{Z}$, then $c + F \subset nF$. Therefore s is the smallest integer strictly greater than $(n-1)l - 1$ and t is the greatest integer strictly smaller than $(n-1)(l+1) + 1$, that is,

$$s = -\lceil (n-1)(-l) \rceil, \quad t = \lceil (n-1)(l+1) \rceil.$$

□

Theorem 2.

$$p_{i,j} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{k=0}^{j - \lfloor \frac{d(n-1)+i}{b} \rfloor} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} \binom{n+b(j+1-k) - d(n-1) - i - 1}{n}, \quad i, j \in \Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D}).$$

Proof. This proof is essentially the same as that of Holte [5] for the case when $\mathcal{D} = \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$. $p_{i,j}$ is the probability of $C_{k+1} = j$ under $C_k = i$ for some $k > 0$. $C_{k+1} = j$ and $C_k = i$ implies there exists a number $a \in \mathcal{D}$, such that,

$$j = \frac{i + X_{1,k} + X_{2,k} + \cdots + X_{n,k} - a}{b}.$$

We count the number N of the solutions $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, a) \in \mathcal{D}^{n+1}$ of the equation

$$bj + a = i + x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n.$$

This is equal to the number of solutions $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y) \in \mathcal{D}^n \times \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$ for the equation

$$bj + d + b - 1 - i = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n + y.$$

By adding d to the both sides, N is equal to the number of solutions $(x_1, \dots, x_n, z) \in \mathcal{D}^{n+1}$ for

$$b(j+1) + 2d - 1 - i = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n + z.$$

Thus, N is the coefficient of $x^{b(j+1)+2d-1-i}$ in $(x^d + x^{d+1} + \cdots + x^{d+b-1})^{n+1}$. Since

$$\begin{aligned} (x^d + x^{d+1} + \cdots + x^{d+b-1})^{n+1} &= \left\{ x^d (1 + x + \cdots + x^{b-1}) \right\}^{n+1} \\ &= x^{d(n+1)} \left(\frac{1 - x^b}{1 - x} \right)^{n+1} \\ &= x^{d(n+1)} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} x^{bk} \right) \left(\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+r}{n} x^r \right), \end{aligned}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}
N &= \sum_{\substack{r, k \geq 0 \\ d(n+1) + bk + r = b(j+1) + 2d - 1 - i}} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} \binom{n+r}{n} x^r \\
&= \sum_{\substack{k \geq 0 \\ b(j+1) + 2d - 1 - i - d(n+1) - bk \geq 0}} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} \binom{n + b(j+1) + 2d - 1 - i - d(n+1) - bk}{n} x^r \\
&= \sum_{k=0}^{j+1 + \left\lfloor -\frac{1+i+d(n-1)}{b} \right\rfloor} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} \binom{n + b(j+1) - 1 - i - d(n-1) - bk}{n} x^r.
\end{aligned}$$

$$j + 1 + \left\lfloor -\frac{1+i+d(n-1)}{b} \right\rfloor = j - \left\lfloor \frac{i+d(n-1)}{b} \right\rfloor, p_{i,j} = \frac{N}{b^n} \text{ and the theorem follows.} \quad \square$$

Lemma 2. Let $P = (\tilde{p}_{i,j})$ be the matrix defined by (3) and let p be defined by (4). Then,

$$\tilde{p}_{i,j} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^j (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n + b(j-r) + \frac{b-1}{p} - i}{n}. \quad (6)$$

Proof. Let s be the minimal element of the state space $\Omega_n(b, \mathcal{D})$ of the n -carry process. Then, recall that

$$s = - \left\lfloor (n-1) \frac{-d}{b-1} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor (n-1) \frac{d}{b-1} \right\rfloor.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{p}_{i,j} &= p_{i+s, j+s} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r \geq 0} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n + b(j+s+1-r) - d(n-1) - i - s - 1}{n} \\
&= n + b(j+s+1-r) - d(n-1) - i - s - 1 \\
&= n + (b-1)s + b(j+1-r) - d(n-1) - i - 1 \\
&= n + (b-1) \left\lfloor (n-1) \frac{-d}{b-1} \right\rfloor + b(j+1-r) - d(n-1) - i - 1 \\
&= n + (b-1) \frac{(n-1)d - (n-1)d \pmod{b-1}}{b-1} + b(j+1-r) - d(n-1) - i - 1 \\
&= n + (b-1) - (n-1)d \pmod{b-1} + b(j-r) - i \\
&= n + (b-1) \frac{(b-1) - (n-1)d \pmod{b-1}}{b-1} + b(j-r) - i \\
&= \begin{cases} n + (b-1) \left\{ \frac{(n-1)(-d)}{b-1} \right\} + b(j-r) - i & \frac{(n-1)(-d)}{b-1} \in \mathbb{Z}, \\ n + (b-1) + b(j-r) - i & \frac{(n-1)(-d)}{b-1} \notin \mathbb{Z}. \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

Here, $x \pmod{N}$ denotes the integer $y \in \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$ such that $x - y \in N\mathbb{Z}$. Then, we calculate a common upper bound of the range of the summation in (6):

$$n + b(j-r) + \frac{b-1}{p} - i \geq n \iff r \leq j + \frac{b-1}{pb} - \frac{i}{p}.$$

Since $p \geq 1$ and $b > 1$, $j + \frac{b-1}{pb} - \frac{i}{p} \leq j$. □

2.2 Generalized Eulerian numbers

Lemma 3.

$$v_{i,n+1}^{(p)}(n) = 0.$$

Proof.

$$v_{i,n+1}^{(p)}(n) = \sum_{r=0}^{n+1} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} [p(n+1-r) + 1]^{n-i}$$

This is a linear combination of

$$\sum_{r=0}^{n+1} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} r^k = 0, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots, n.$$

□

Lemma 4.

$$v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n) = [p(n+1-j) - 1]v_{i,j-1}^{(p)}(n-1) + (pj+1)v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1). \quad (7)$$

Proof. The first term T_1 of right hand side of (7) can be rewritten as

$$T_1 = \sum_{k=1}^j (-1)^{k-1} \binom{n}{k-1} [p(n+1-j) - 1] [p(j-k) + 1]^{n-1-i},$$

and the second term T_2

$$T_2 = \sum_{k=1}^j (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (pj+1) [p(j-k) + 1]^{n-1-i} + (pj+1)(pj+1)^{n-1-i}.$$

Thus the right hand side of (7) is

$$\begin{aligned} T_1 + T_2 &= \sum_{k=1}^j (-1)^k \left\{ -\binom{n}{k-1} [p(n+1-j) - 1] + \binom{n}{k} (pj+1) \right\} [p(j-k) + 1]^{n-1-i} \\ &\quad + (pj+1)^{n-i} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^j (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} [p(j-k) + 1]^{n-i} + (pj+1)^{n-i} \\ &= v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n). \end{aligned}$$

□

Lemma 5.

$$\sum_{j=0}^n v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n) = \begin{cases} p^n n! & \text{if } i = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } i > 0. \end{cases}$$

Proof. By Lemma 4, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=0}^n v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n) &= \sum_{j=0}^n \left\{ [p(n+1-j) - 1] v_{i,j-1}^{(p)}(n-1) + (pj+1) v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1) \right\} \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^n [p(n+1-j) - 1] v_{i,j-1}^{(p)}(n-1) + \sum_{j=0}^n (pj+1) v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1) \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} [p(n-j) - 1] v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1) + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (pj+1) v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1) \\
&= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} pm v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1) \\
&= pn \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n-1) \\
&= \begin{cases} p^n n! & \text{if } i = 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } i > 0. \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

□

The following Proposition 1 shows a symmetry of the generalized Eulerian number.

Proposition 1. *Let n be a positive integer. Then*

$$v_{i,n-1-j}^{(1)} = (-1)^i v_{i,j}^{(1)}(n) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq n-1.$$

Let $p > 1$ and p^ be the real number satisfying*

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{p^*} = 1.$$

Then,

$$v_{i,n-j}^{(p^*)}(n) = (-1)^i \left(\frac{p^*}{p} \right)^{n-i} v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq j \leq n.$$

Proof. We show the proof only for the second part. The first part can be proved in the same manner.

If $p > 1$ then $p^* = p/(p-1)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
v_{i,n-j}^{(p^*)}(n) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-j} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} (p^*(n-j-k) + 1)^{n-i} \\
&= \sum_{k=n+1-j}^{n+1} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} (p^*(n-j-k) + 1)^{n-i} \\
&= - \sum_{k'=0}^j (-1)^{n+1-k'} \binom{n+1}{n+1-k'} (p^*(n-j-(n+1-k')) + 1)^{n-i} \\
&= - \sum_{k'=0}^j (-1)^{n+1-k'} \binom{n+1}{k'} \left(\frac{p}{p-1}(k'-j-1) + 1 \right)^{n-i} \\
&= - \sum_{k=0}^j (-1)^{n+1-k} \binom{n+1}{k} \left(\frac{-1}{p-1} \right)^{n-i} (p(j-k+1) - p + 1)^{n-i} \\
&= (-1)^n \left(\frac{-1}{p-1} \right)^{n-i} \sum_{k=0}^j (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} (p(j-k) + 1)^{n-i} \\
&= \frac{(-1)^i}{(p-1)^{n-i}} \sum_{k=0}^j (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} (p(j-k) + 1)^{n-i}
\end{aligned}$$

□

2.3 Left eigenvectors

Proof of Theorem 1. The proof is essentially the same as that of Holte [5]. It suffices to show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \tilde{p}_{k,j} = \frac{1}{b^i} v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n).$$

We prove the theorem for the case in which $p \neq 1$, i.e., $m = n + 1$, and the other case can be proved in the same manner. By Lemma 2 we have

$$\tilde{p}_{k,j} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^j (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n},$$

where we put $K(j,r) = b(j-r) + \frac{b-1}{p}$ for the simplicity of the notation.

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^n v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \tilde{p}_{k,j} &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^j (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \\
&= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^j (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \sum_{k=0}^{K(j,r)} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \\
&= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^j (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \{pK(j,r) + 1\}^{n-i}.
\end{aligned}$$

The third equality in the above transformation is derived as follows: First recall that $v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n)$ is the coefficient of x^k in

$$\left(\sum_{\nu=0}^{n+1} (-1)^\nu \binom{n+1}{\nu} x^\nu \right) \left(\sum_{\mu=0}^{\infty} (p\mu+1)^{n-i} x^\mu \right) = (1-x)^{n+1} \left(\sum_{\mu=0}^{\infty} (p\mu+1)^{n-i} x^\mu \right),$$

and

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^{n+1}} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+k}{n} x^k.$$

Therefore, $\sum_{k=0}^{K(j,r)} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n)$ is the coefficient of $x^{K(j,r)}$ in $\sum_{\mu=0}^{\infty} (p\mu+1)^{n-i} x^\mu$.

It can be easily confirmed that $pK(j,r)+1 = b(p(j-r)+1)$ which completes the proof. \square

Theorem 1 gives a way of finding a numeration system (b, \mathcal{D}) whose n -carry process has the stationary distribution of the form

$$\pi = (\pi(s), \pi(s+1), \dots, \pi(s+m-1)) = \frac{1}{p^n n!} \left(\left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ 0 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p, \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p, \dots, \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ m-1 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p \right)$$

for any given n and rational $p \geq 1$. For instance, if $p = \frac{K}{L}$ where K and L are coprime positive integers such that $K \geq L$, then we can choose b and d as

$$b = (n-1)K + 1, \quad d = -L. \quad (8)$$

Example 2. We construct numeration systems for $p = 2$ and $5/3$.

n	b	\mathcal{D}	P	V
2	3	$\{-1, 0, 1\}$	$\frac{1}{3^2} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 6 & 0 \\ 1 & 7 & 1 \\ 0 & 6 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
3	5	$\{-1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$	$\frac{1}{5^3} \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 80 & 35 & 0 \\ 4 & 68 & 52 & 1 \\ 1 & 52 & 68 & 4 \\ 0 & 35 & 80 & 10 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 23 & 23 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 & -5 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
4	7	$\{-1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$	$\frac{1}{7^4} \begin{pmatrix} 35 & 826 & 1330 & 210 & 0 \\ 15 & 640 & 1420 & 325 & 1 \\ 5 & 470 & 1451 & 470 & 5 \\ 1 & 325 & 1420 & 640 & 15 \\ 0 & 210 & 1330 & 826 & 35 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 76 & 230 & 76 & 1 \\ 1 & 22 & 0 & -22 & -1 \\ 1 & 4 & -10 & 4 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Table 1: Amazing matrices with $p = 2$

n	b	\mathcal{D}	P	V
2	6	$\{-3, -2, \dots, 2\}$	$\frac{1}{6^2} \begin{pmatrix} 10 & 25 & 1 \\ 6 & 27 & 3 \\ 3 & 27 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 37/9 & 4/9 \\ 1 & -1/3 & -2/3 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
3	11	$\{-3, -2, \dots, 7\}$	$\frac{1}{11^4} \begin{pmatrix} 84 & 804 & 439 & 4 \\ 56 & 745 & 520 & 10 \\ 35 & 676 & 600 & 20 \\ 20 & 600 & 676 & 35 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 404/27 & 311/27 & 8/27 \\ 1 & 28/9 & -11/3 & -4/9 \\ 1 & -4/3 & -1/3 & 2/3 \\ 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
4	16	$\{-3, -2, \dots, 12\}$	$\frac{1}{16^4} \begin{pmatrix} 715 & 20176 & 37390 & 7240 & 15 \\ 495 & 18000 & 38326 & 8680 & 35 \\ 330 & 15900 & 38960 & 10276 & 70 \\ 210 & 13900 & 39280 & 12020 & 126 \\ 126 & 12020 & 39280 & 13900 & 210 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3691/81 & 8891/81 & 2321/81 & 16/81 \\ 1 & 377/27 & -31/9 & -101/9 & -8/27 \\ 1 & 19/9 & -61/9 & 29/9 & 4/9 \\ 1 & -7/3 & 1 & 1 & -2/3 \\ 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Table 2: Amazing matrices with $p = \frac{5}{3}$

2.4 Sum of independent uniform random variables

Proof of Corollary 1. Let $X_{i,j}$ ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n, j = 1, 2, \dots$) be independent random variables each distributed uniformly on \mathcal{D} . Then, for each integer $k \geq 1$, the random variables

$$X_i^{(k)} = \frac{X_{i,1}}{b} + \frac{X_{i,2}}{b^2} + \dots + \frac{X_{i,k}}{b^k}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

are independent random variables uniformly distributed over the set

$$R_k = \left\{ \frac{x_1}{b} + \frac{x_2}{b^2} + \dots + \frac{x_k}{b^k} \mid x_i \in \mathcal{D} \right\}.$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(X_i^{(k)} \in [a, b]) = b - a, \quad \text{for } a \geq b \in [l, l+1] \text{ and } i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be independent random variables each of which is distributed uniformly over $[l, l+1]$. Then, for any integer $c \in \Omega$,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(X_1^{(k)} + X_2^{(k)} + \dots + X_n^{(k)} \in c + [l, l+1]) = \Pr(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \in c + [l, l+1]).$$

Since

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(X_1^{(k)} + X_2^{(k)} + \dots + X_n^{(k)} \in c + [l, l+1]) = \pi(c),$$

we have

$$\pi(c) = \Pr(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \in c + [l, l+1]).$$

Let $p > 1$ be a non-integral rational number, and suppose that we choose b and d so that

$$p = \frac{1}{\{(n-1)(-l)\}}$$

holds, which is always possible by (8). Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{p} = (n-1)(-l) - \lfloor (n-1)(-l) \rfloor &\iff nl + \frac{1}{p} = l - \lfloor (n-1)(-l) \rfloor = l + (1 - \lceil (n-1)(-l) \rceil) \\ &\iff nl + \frac{1}{p} + [k-1, k] = (s+k) + [l, l+1]. \end{aligned}$$

Let Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n be independent random variables each uniformly distributed on the unit interval $[0, 1]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n \in \frac{1}{p} + [k-1, k]) &= \Pr((Y_1 + l) + \dots + (Y_n + l) \in nl + \frac{1}{p} + [k-1, k]) \\ &= \Pr(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_l \in nl + \frac{1}{p} + [k-1, k]) \\ &= \Pr(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_l \in (s+k) + [l, l+1]) \\ &= \pi(s+k) \\ &= \frac{1}{p^n n!} \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p. \end{aligned}$$

When p is an integer, the statement is proved by a similar argument. Since both sides of the equation (5) are continuous function of p , the statement of the theorem holds when p is irrational. \square

Remark 4. *Corollary 1 gives a different proof and a new interpretation for Proposition 1 for the case $i = 0$.*

3 Negative base

In this section, we consider carries processes over the numeration systems with the negative bases. Let $b > 1$ be an integer and $\mathcal{D} = \{d, d+1, \dots, d+b-1\}$ a set of integers containing 0. Suppose an integer x can be represented in the form:

$$x = (x_l x_{l-1} \dots x_0)_{-b} = x_l (-b)^l + x_{l-1} (-b)^{l-1} + \dots + x_1 (-b) + x_0,$$

where l is a non-negative integer and $x_l \neq 0$. Then this representation is unique and the set

$$\{(x_l x_{l-1} \dots x_0)_{-b} \mid l \geq 0, x_k \in \mathcal{D}\}.$$

is closed under the addition. We can define the n -carry process over the numeration system $(-b, \mathcal{D})$ in the same manner as the positive base case. Let $\{X_{i,j}\}_{1 \leq i \leq n, j \geq 0}$ be a set of i.i.d. random variables each distributed uniformly on \mathcal{D} . Then the carries process (C_0, C_1, C_2, \dots) is defined as follows: $\Pr(C_0 = 0) = 1$ and

$$C_i = \frac{C_{i-1} + X_{1,i-1} + \dots + X_{n,i-1} - A_{i-1}}{-b} \quad \text{for } i > 0,$$

where A_j is \mathcal{D} -valued. These carries processes have the properties similar to those of the positive base cases. The proofs of the following Lemma 6, Theorem 3, and Lemma 7 are similar to those of Lemma 1, Theorem 2, and Lemma 2. The proof of Theorem 4 needs an additional combinatorial argument.

Lemma 6. Let $\Omega = \Omega_n(-b, \mathcal{D})$ be the state space of the n -carry process over the numeration system $(-b, \mathcal{D})$. Then, $\Omega = \{s, s+1, \dots, t\}$ with

$$s = -\lceil (n-1)(-l) \rceil = \lfloor (n-1)l \rfloor, \quad t = \lceil (n-1)(l+1) \rceil,$$

where $l = (-d-b)/(b+1)$. Therefore, the size of the state space Ω is

$$\#\Omega = \begin{cases} n+1 & (n-1)l \notin \mathbb{Z}, \\ n & (n-1)l \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{cases}$$

Theorem 3. Let $i, j \in \Omega(-b, \mathcal{D})$. Then the transition probability $p_{i,j} = \Pr(C_{t+1} = j | C_t = i)$ for $t > 0$ is

$$p_{i,j} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{-j+1 + \lfloor \frac{-i-1+(1-n)d}{b} \rfloor} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n-b(j-1+r) - i - 1 + (1-n)d}{n}.$$

We denote

$$\tilde{p}_{i,j} = p_{i+s,j+s}.$$

where s is the minimal element of the state space $\Omega(-b, \mathcal{D})$ of the n -carry process over $(-b, \mathcal{D})$.

Lemma 7. Let p be defined by

$$p = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\lfloor (n-1)l \rfloor} & (n-1)l \notin \mathbb{Z} \quad (\Leftrightarrow m = n+1), \\ 1 & (n-1)l \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (\Leftrightarrow m = n). \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

where $l = (-d-b)/(b+1)$ and $m = \#\Omega_n(-b, \mathcal{D})$. Then,

$$\tilde{p}_{i,j} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{n-j} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n+b(n+1-j-r) - \frac{b+1}{p} - i}{n}.$$

Theorem 4. Let $P = (\tilde{p}_{i,j})_{0 \leq i,j \leq m-1}$ be the transition probability matrix of the n -carry process over the numeration system $(-b, \mathcal{D})$, and $m = \#\Omega(-b, \mathcal{D})$ be the size of the state space. Let p be defined by

$$p = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\lfloor (n-1)l \rfloor} & (n-1)l \notin \mathbb{Z} \quad (\Leftrightarrow m = n+1), \\ 1 & (n-1)l \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (\Leftrightarrow m = n). \end{cases}$$

where $l = (-d-b)/(b+1)$ and $\{x\} = x - \lfloor x \rfloor$. Let $V = (v_{i,j}^{(p)})_{0 \leq i,j \leq m-1}$. Then, we have

$$VPV^{-1} = \text{diag}(1, (-b)^{-1}, \dots, (-b)^{m-1}).$$

In particular, the n -carry process over $(-b, \mathcal{D})$ has the stationary distribution

$$\pi = (\pi(s), \pi(s+1), \dots, \pi(s+m-1)) = \frac{1}{p^n n!} \left(\left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ 0 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p, \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p, \dots, \left\langle \begin{matrix} n \\ m-1 \end{matrix} \right\rangle_p \right).$$

Proof. It suffices to show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \tilde{p}_{k,j} = \frac{1}{(-b)^i} v_{i,j}^{(p)}(n). \quad (10)$$

Recall that

$$\tilde{p}_{k,j} = \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{n-j} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n},$$

where, we put $K(j,r) = b(n+1-j-r) - \frac{b+1}{p}$ for the simplicity of the notation. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{L.H.S. of (10)} &= \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{n-j} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \\ &= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{n-j} \sum_{k=0}^{K(j,r)} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \\ &= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{n-j} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} \sum_{k=0}^{K(j,r)} \binom{n+K(j,r)-k}{n} v_{i,k}^{(p)}(n) \\ &= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=0}^{n-j} (-1)^r \binom{n+1}{r} [pK(j,r) + 1]^{n-i} \\ &\quad \text{(We use the same argument as in the proof of Theorem 2.)} \\ &= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r'=j+1}^{n+1} (-1)^{n+1-r'} \binom{n+1}{n+1-r'} [pK(j, n+1-r') + 1]^{n-i} \\ &\quad \text{(We use the transformation } r' = n+1-r \text{.)} \\ &= \frac{1}{b^n} \sum_{r=j+1}^{n+1} (-1)^{n+1-r} \binom{n+1}{r} [-b(p(j-r') + 1)]^{n-i}. \end{aligned}$$

□

4 Concluding remarks

Many natural questions arise.

In the forthcoming paper, we will show a formula for the right eigenvectors, which involves Stirling numbers.

Our theorems hold only for the numeration systems (b, \mathcal{D}) , where \mathcal{D} consists of consecutive integers containing 0. For example, the 2-carry process over $(3, \{-1, 0, 4\})$ has rather large state space

$$\Omega_2(3, \{-1, 0, 4\}) = \{-5, -4, \dots, 4\},$$

and the transition probability matrix

$$P = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

whose characteristic polynomial $\det(xI - P)$ is

$$(x - 1)(3x - 1)(9x - 1)(531441x^7 - 19683x^5 + 5103x^4 - 1944x^3 - 297x^2 + 24x + 2).$$

Although there are eigenvalues of the form $1, 1/3, 1/3^2$, we have no knowledge on the rest of the eigenvalues. The difficulty comes from the geometric structure of the fundamental domain $\{(x_l x_{l-1} \dots x_0)_b \mid l \geq 0, x_k \in \mathcal{D}\}$.

Diaconis and Fulman [2, 3] shows the relation between carries processes and shufflings for the case when $p = 1$ and 2 . We do not know whether there exist some shufflings corresponding to the cases with $p \neq 1, 2$.

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