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Pascal's formulas and vector fields

Philippe Chassaing *, Jules Flin †, Alexis Zevio ‡
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Abstract

We consider four examples of combinatorial triangles $(T(n,k))_{0 \le k \le n}$ (Pascal, Stirling of both types, Euler): their *Pascal's formulas* define four vector fields, together with their field lines that turn out to be the limit of sample paths of four well known Markov chains. Using saddle-point asymptotics, we prove fluid approximation results in some of the four cases.

1 Introduction

1.1 Pascal's formulas

Set $S = \{(n,k) \in \mathbb{N}^2, \ 0 \le k \le n\}$, $\mathring{S} = \{(n,k) \in \mathbb{N}^2, \ 0 < k < n\}$, and let $S^\star = S \setminus \{(0,0)\}$. Besides Pascal's triangle, other triangular arrays $(T(n,k))_{(n,k) \in S}$ of interest satisfy a recursion formula similar to Pascal's formula, i.e. of the following form, for $(n,k) \in S^\star$:

$$T(n,k) = a(n,k)T(n-1,k-1) + b(n,k)T(n-1,k),$$
(1)

with the convention that either $(n, k) \in S$ or T(n, k) = 0. For instance, relation (1) holds true for the following triangular arrays:

- for Pascal's triangle, if (a, b)(n, k) = (1, 1);
- for Stirling numbers of the second kind, if (a,b)(n,k)=(1,k);
- for Stirling numbers of the first kind, if (a, b)(n, k) = (1, n 1);
- for Euler's triangle, if (a,b)(n,k) = (n-k,k+1).

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1.2 Transition probabilities

In view of (1), for $(n, k) \in S^*$, consider

$$(p_0(n,k), p_1(n,k)) = \left(\frac{b(n,k)T(n-1,k)}{T(n,k)}, \frac{a(n,k)T(n-1,k-1)}{T(n,k)}\right)$$
(2)

as some transition probabilities from (n, k) to (n - 1, k), resp. to (n - 1, k - 1). For each of these four triangular arrays, the transition probabilities

$$(p_{\varepsilon}(n,k))_{(\varepsilon,(n,k))\in\{0,1\}\times S^{\star}},$$

together with the initial state (m, ℓ) , define a Markov chain $W = (W_k)_{0 \le k \le n}$ with terminal state (0,0). These four Markov chains are closely related to the simple random walk, the coupon collector problem, the chinese restaurant process and the one-dimensional internal DLA, respectively: they are the time-reversed versions of these processes, once these processes are conditioned to be at level ℓ at time m, as explained in the next section.

1.3 Random walk, coupon collector, chinese restaurant, and internal DLA

Consider a random process defined by $X_0 = 0$, and, for $n \ge 0$, $X_{n+1} = X_n + Y_{n+1}$, in which the Y_i 's are Bernoulli random variables. Set

$$W_n = (m - n, X_{m-n}), \quad 0 \le n \le m.$$

1.3.1 Simple random walk

Assume that $(Y_i)_{i\geq 1}$ is a Bernoulli process, i.e. a sequence of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables with parameter $p\in(0,1)$. Then

Proposition 1. The stochastic process $W = (W_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$, conditioned to $W_0 = (m, \ell)$, or equivalently to $X_m = \ell$, is the Markov chain with transition probabilities $(p_{\varepsilon}(n, k))_{(\varepsilon, n, k) \in \{0, 1\} \times S^*}$ related to Pascal's triangle. Its distribution does not depend on p.

This result goes back at least to Kennedy [Ken75]. We recall its proof at Subsection 2. In the next cases, the Bernoulli random variables Y_i are not i.i.d. .

1.3.2 Coupon collector's problem

Consider the coupon collector's problem with N different items. Let X_n denote the number of different items in the collection after the nth step. Again :

Proposition 2. The stochastic process $W = (W_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$, conditioned on $W_0 = (m, \ell)$, or equivalently on the number of different items in the collection after the mth step, X_m , to be equal to ℓ , is the Markov chain with transition probabilities $(p_{\varepsilon}(n, k))_{\varepsilon, n, k}$ related to Stirling numbers of the second kind. Its distribution does not depend on N.

1.3.3 Chinese restaurant process

In the Chinese restaurant process with $(0, \theta)$ seating plan, defined at Section 2 (see also, e.g., [Pit06, Ch. 3]), let X_n denote the number of occupied tables after the arrival of the nth customer.

Proposition 3. The stochastic process $W = (W_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$, conditioned to $W_0 = (m, \ell)$, or equivalently to $X_m = \ell$, is the Markov chain with transition probabilities $(p_{\varepsilon}(n, k))_{\varepsilon, n, k}$ related to Stirling numbers of the first kind. Its distribution does not depend on θ .

Remark 1. As a consequence, in the three previous cases, given the data $(X_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$, X_m (or W_0) are sufficient statistics for the parameters p, N or θ , respectively.

1.3.4 One-dimensional Internal Diffusion Limited Aggregation

Finally, in the one-dimensional Internal Diffusion Limited Aggregation process (iDLA), let X_n denote the number of particles settled to the right of the origin after the release of the *n*th particle. Then

Proposition 4. The stochastic process $W = (W_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$, conditioned to $W_0 = (m, \ell)$, is the Markov chain with transition probabilities $(p_{\varepsilon}(n, k))_{\varepsilon, n, k}$ related to Euler's triangle.

More precise definitions, and proofs, are to be found at Section 2.

1.4 Simulations

In the case of Pascal's triangle, the behaviour of this time-reversed Markov chain is well understood since forever. Quite recently, [AC19] gave a rather precise analysis of the same time-reversed Markov chain in case of Stirling numbers of the second kind, with combinatorial analysis of finite automata as a motivation.

In this section, in order to surmise the behaviour of these time-reversed Markov chains, we present the result of some simulations. For each case, the figures below show sample paths starting at (m, mt) with $t \in \{0.05, ..., 0.95\}$ and m = 500:

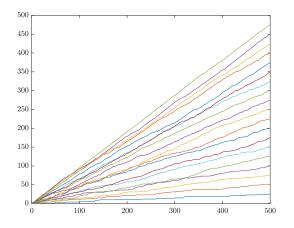
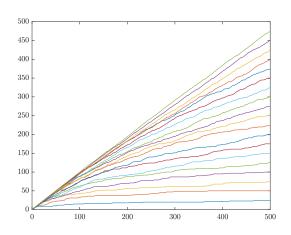


Figure 1: Pascal's triangle.

Figure 2: Stirling numbers of the second kind.



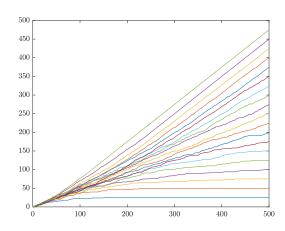


Figure 3: Stirling numbers of the first kind.

Figure 4: Eulerian numbers.

Now, in order to compare the four combinatorial triangles, we show the average of 100 sample paths for each triangle, for m = 1000 and $t \in \{0.05, ..., 0.95\}$:

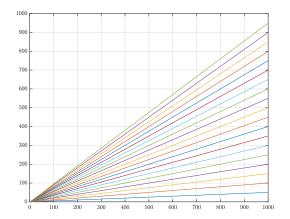
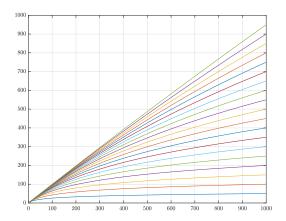


Figure 5: Pascal's triangle.

Figure 6: Stirling numbers of the second kind.



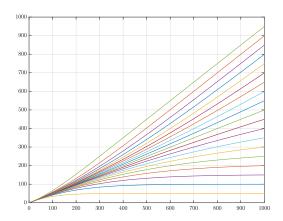


Figure 7: Stirling numbers of the first kind.

Figure 8: Eulerian numbers.

In the first two cases, the smooth nature of these averaged paths is not unexpected due to old, and more recent, fluid approximation results, see [AC19] or the next sections. This paper aims at a global explanation of the asymptotic behaviour of the four Markov chains exhibited by these simulations.

1.5 Asymptotics of sample paths, and field lines of vector fields

Combinatorial analysis, see [Goo61] or [Ben73], yields that,

Theorem 1. In each of the four cases, there exists a function $\varphi:(0,+\infty)\to [0,1]$ such that, for any positive number λ_{∞} , when $(m,\ell)\to +\infty$ and $\lim m/\ell=1+\lambda_{\infty}$,

$$\lim p_1(m,\ell) = \varphi(\lambda_{\infty}).$$

At the end of this section, the function φ is described for each of the four cases. We set, for $(m, \ell) \in \mathring{S}$,

$$\lambda = \lambda(m, \ell) = \frac{m - \ell}{\ell}.$$

As a direct consequence of Theorem 1, one expects a fluid approximation of the previous Markov chains by a special family of curves: let $\mathbb{P}_{(m,\ell)}$ denote the probability distribution of the Markov chain W starting from (m,ℓ) , and let $(x,\gamma_{\lambda}(x))_{0\leq x\leq n}$ be the field line going through the point $(1,\ell/m)=(1,1/(1+\lambda))$ for the vector field $(1,\varphi(-1+x/y))$, or, equivalently, let γ_{λ} denote the solution of the ODE

$$y' = \varphi\left(\frac{x-y}{y}\right) \tag{3}$$

that satisfies $y(1) = 1/(1+\lambda)$. So far we have a complete proof of this approximation only in the first 2 cases :

Theorem 2. In the first 2 cases, there exists $\eta > 0$ such for any $\varepsilon > 0$ and for any $\lambda_{\infty} > 0$, when $(m, \ell) \to +\infty$ and $\lim \lambda(m, \ell) = \lambda_{\infty}$,

$$\lim \mathbb{P}_{(m,\ell)} \left(\sup_{\varepsilon \le t \le 1} \left(\left\| \frac{1}{m} W_{\lfloor m(1-t) \rfloor} - (t, \gamma_{\lambda_{\infty}}(t)) \right\| \right) \ge m^{-\eta} \right) = 0.$$

This kind of statement seems to hold true for eulerian numbers, according to our simulations (see Section 1.4), but remains an open question. For Stirling numbers of the first kind, our proof is still incomplete at the moment, but should be completed in the next few weeks. For Stirling numbers of the second kind, the proofs rely mainly on uniform bounds for

$$m |p_1(m,\ell) - \varphi(\lambda(m,\ell))|,$$

on domains that approach \mathring{S} as well as possible. These bounds follow from a careful asymptotic analysis of $T(m, \ell)$.

Our choice of combinatorial triangles may seem arbitrary, and we confess it is: for instance, Bell's triangle or Delannoy's triangle have also Pascal's formulas, but of a slightly different form. It remains to see if the approach of this paper still produces results for Bell's triangle or Delannoy's triangle, in spite of these slight differences.

1.5.1 Description of φ

• Pascal's triangle. It is well known that for all $(m, \ell) \in S^*$,

$$p_1(m,\ell) = \frac{\ell}{m},$$

so that

$$\varphi_1(\lambda) = \frac{1}{1+\lambda}.$$

Relation (3) reduces to y' = y/x, with the linear functions as solutions, as expected.

• Stirling numbers of the second kind. For $\lambda > 0$, let φ_2 be defined, through $\zeta_2(\lambda)$, the unique positive solution of

$$\frac{\zeta_2}{1 - e^{-\zeta_2}} = 1 + \lambda$$
, by $\varphi_2(\lambda) = e^{-\zeta_2}$.

• Stirling numbers of the first kind. For $\lambda > 0$, let φ_3 be defined, through $\zeta_3(\lambda)$, the unique solution, in (0,1), of

$$\frac{\zeta_3}{(\zeta_3 - 1)\ln(1 - \zeta_3)} = 1 + \lambda, \text{ by } \varphi_3(\lambda) = 1 - \zeta_3.$$

• Eulerian numbers. For $\lambda > 0$, let φ_4 be defined, through $\zeta_4(\lambda)$, the unique solution, in \mathbb{R} , of

$$\frac{1}{1+\lambda} = \frac{e^{\zeta_4}}{e^{\zeta_4} - 1} - \frac{1}{\zeta_4}, \text{ by } \varphi_4(\lambda) = 1 - \frac{\zeta_4}{(1+\lambda)(e^{\zeta_4} - 1)}.$$

2 Time reversal and Markov property for W

In this section, we prove Propositions 1, 2, 3 and 4. The notations X_n , Y_n , W_n are defined at Section 1.3.

2.1 Time reversal

As already known since the beginning of the theory, a time-reversed Markov process is still a Markov process (cf. [CW05, Chap. 10]), but it is an inhomogeneous one. Let us recall the basic facts that we need here: if h_k denotes the probability distribution of X_k and if $X = (X_k)_{k\geq 0}$ is an inhomogeneous Markov chain with kernels $(Q_k)_{k\geq 0}$, i.e.

$$Q_{k,i,j} = \mathbb{P}\left(X_{k+1} = j \mid X_k = i\right),\,$$

then

Proposition 5. $W = (W_n)_{0 \le n \le m}$ is a Markov chain with kernel P defined by

$$P_{(n,i),(n-1,j)} = \frac{h_{n-1}(j)Q_{n-1,j,i}}{h_n(i)}.$$

Proof. First, (P_n) is a sequence of probability kernels due the Chapman-Kolmogorov equations for (h_n) and (Q_n) . Then,

$$\mathbb{P}\left((X_k)_{0 \le k \le m} = (x_k)_{0 \le k \le m}\right) = h_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{m-1} Q_{k, x_k, x_{k+1}},$$

thus, provided that $x_m = \ell$,

$$\mathbb{P}((X_k)_{0 \le k \le m} = (x_k)_{0 \le k \le m} \mid X_m = \ell) = h_0(x_0) \prod_{k=0}^{m-1} Q_{k,x_k,x_{k+1}} / h_m(\ell),$$

$$= \prod_{k=0}^{m-1} P_{(k+1,x_{k+1}),(k,x_k)}.$$

That is,

$$\mathbb{P}\left((W_k)_{0 \le k \le m} = (m-k, x_{m-k})_{0 \le k \le m} \mid W_0 = (m, \ell)\right) = \prod_{k=0}^{m-1} P_{(k+1, x_{k+1}), (k, x_k)},$$

as expected. \Box

In the first three examples, $h_n(k) = T(n,k)\theta^k/T_n(\theta)$, or $h_n(k) = T(n,k)\theta^{k\downarrow}/T_n(\theta)$, in which $T_n(\theta)$ is a normalizing constant:

$$T_n(\theta) = \sum_{k=0}^n T(n,k)\theta^k$$
, or $T_n(\theta) = \sum_{k=0}^n T(n,k)\theta^{k\downarrow}$. (4)

For eulerian numbers, $h_n(k) = T(n,k)/T_n(1) = T(n,k)/n!$. Also, Q_n results from a natural growing mechanism with independent steps, that is, a Markovian growth process obtained as follows:

- by addition of an n + 1th letter, either **a** or **b**, at the end of a random word of $\{a, b\}^n$, in order to form an n + 1-letters long word, for Pascal's triangle,
- by addition of the image of n+1 to a random mapping from [n] to [N], in order to form a random mapping from [n+1] to [N], for the second Stirling triangle,
- by random insertion of n+1 in order to form a permutation on [n+1], starting from a permutation on [n], for the 2 other examples.

In each case, the added letter, or integer, is chosen independently of the history of the growth process, hence the Markovian character of these growth processes. For the sake of brevity, in this paper, we call this last growth process the *random permutation process*. For these three nonhomogeneous Markov growth processes, there exist well studied functionals that retain the Markov property, and whose one-dimensional distributions are given by the rows of the corresponding combinatorial triangle:

- the sequence of counts of letter a, in the sequence of words defined previously, forms one of the most studied Markov chain: the simple random walk, whose one-dimensional distributions h_n are binomial distributions, famously related to Pascal's triangle;
- the sequence of sizes of images, derived from the sequence of random mappings, is a famous inhomogeneous Markov chain, related to the coupon collector problem: it is the sequence of successive sizes of the collection. Its one-dimensional distributions h_n have a simple expression in terms of the Stirling numbers of the second kind;
- the sequence of number of cycles, derived from the random permutation process, is an inhomogeneous Markov chain, related to the chinese restaurant process. Its one-dimensional distributions h_n have a simple expression in terms of the Stirling numbers of the first kind;

• the sequence of the number of descents, also derived from the random permutation process, is an inhomogeneous Markov chain, related to the internal diffusion limited aggregation process. Its one-dimensional distributions h_n have a simple expression in terms of eulerian numbers.

The Chapman-Kolmogorov equations for these Markov chains are derived from the Pascal's formulas for the corresponding triangles through renormalization: in our settings, Q_n is defined by (a, b) as follows

$$Q_{n,x,y} = c_n(\theta) \left(b(n+1,y) \mathbb{1}_{y=x \in [n]} + a(n+1,y) \theta \mathbb{1}_{y=x+1 \in [n+1]} \right), \tag{5}$$

in which $c_n(\theta)$ denotes a normalizing factor $T_n(\theta)/T_{n+1}(\theta)$, and $\theta = \theta^{x+1}/\theta^x$ should be replaced, in (5), with $\theta - x = \theta^{x+1\downarrow}/\theta^{x\downarrow}$ in the case of Stirling numbers of the second kind. For eulerian numbers, $\theta = 1$. Then, Pascal's formulas appear as special cases of the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation $h_{n-1}Q_{n-1} = h_n$, and relation (2) is just a special case of Proposition 5.

Here, $Q_{n,x_n,x_{n+1}} \neq 0$ only if $\varepsilon_{n+1} = x_{n+1} - x_n$ belongs to $\{0,1\}$, thus $P_{(n,x),(n-1,y)} \neq 0$ only if $\varepsilon = x - y$ belongs to $\{0,1\}$: in this paper, $P_{(n,x),(n-1,x-\varepsilon)}$ is abridged to $p_{\varepsilon}(n,x)$.

2.2 Simple random walk

Proof of Proposition 1. Here

$$T(n,k) = \binom{n}{k}, \quad \theta = \frac{p}{1-p}, \quad T_n(\theta) = (1+\theta)^n$$

$$h_n(k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}, \quad c_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{1+\theta} = 1-p.$$

Then, for instance,

$$P_{(n,i),(n-1,i-1)} = \frac{h_{n-1}(i-1)Q_{n-1,i-1,i}}{h_n(i)}$$

$$= \frac{\binom{n-1}{i-1}p^{i-1}(1-p)^{n-i} \times p}{\binom{n}{i}p^i(1-p)^{n-i}} = \frac{\binom{n-1}{i-1}}{\binom{n}{i}} = p_1(n,i)$$

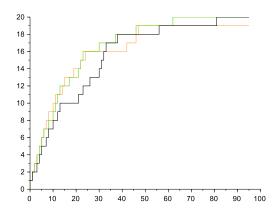
as expected.

2.3 Coupon collector's problem

Let us recall the famous problem studied by Gauss and Laplace, among others: a collector wants to complete a collection of N different items (denoted 1, ..., N). At each step, he receives a coupon chosen uniformly from [1, N]. The average time to complete the collection is known to be NH_N , where

$$H_N = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{k}$$

is the Nth harmonic number. If X_n denotes the number of different items in the collection after the nth step, then we call the graph of $t \mapsto X_{\lfloor t \rfloor}$ the completion curve.



200 180 160 140 120 100 80 60 40 20 0 200 400 600 800 1000 1200 1400 1600 1800

Figure 9: Three completion curves for a n = 20 items collection.

Figure 10: Three completion curves for a n = 200 items collection.

Proof of Proposition 2. See [AC19, Proposition 1], in which the proof is given for m = N. It fits with the frame given at Section 2.1 as follows: set

$$T(n,k) = \begin{Bmatrix} n \\ k \end{Bmatrix}, \quad \theta = N,$$

but consider a variant of T_n . Here:

$$T_n(\theta) = \sum_k T(n,k)\theta^{k\downarrow} = N^n$$

$$h_n(k) = \binom{N}{k} \binom{n}{k} k! \frac{1}{N^n} = \binom{n}{k} \frac{N^{k\downarrow}}{N^n}, \quad c_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{N}.$$

Then, for instance,

$$Q_{n,k,k+1} = a(n+1,k) \frac{\theta^{k+1\downarrow}}{\theta^{k\downarrow}} c_n(\theta) = \frac{N-k}{N}.$$

and

$$p_1(n,k) = P_{(n,k),(n-1,k-1)} = \frac{h_{n-1}(k-1)Q_{n-1,k-1,k}}{h_n(k)}$$
$$= \frac{\binom{n-1}{k-1} \frac{N^{k-1}}{N^{n-1}} \times \frac{N-k+1}{N}}{\binom{n}{k} \frac{N^{k}}{N^n}} = \frac{\binom{n-1}{k-1}}{\binom{n}{k}},$$

as expected.

2.4 Chinese restaurant process

Set $\theta \in (0, +\infty)$. The chinese restaurant process, introduced in 1974 by Antoniak in [Ant74], is defined as follows: when entering a metaphoric chinese restaurant, the

first customer seats at the first table. For n > 1, the nth customer seats at the kth (non-empty) table with probability $\frac{c_{n,k}}{n-1+\theta}$ (where $c_{n,k}$ is the number of customers seated at this table), or at an empty table with probability $\frac{\theta}{n-1+\theta}$. Let X_n denote the number of non-empty tables after the arrival of the nth customer. For exemple, let us sample the first 50 steps of the process, for $\theta = 1$:

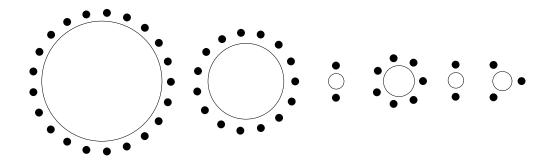


Figure 11: A realization of the chinese restaurant process (here $X_{50}=6$).

Proof of Proposition 3. In this example, $(Y_i)_{i\geq 1}$ is a family of independent Bernoulli random variables with respective parameters $\mu_i = \theta/(i-1+\theta)$. We have:

$$T(n,k) = \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}, \quad T_n(\theta) = \sum_k T(n,k)\theta^k = (\theta)^{\uparrow n}, \quad c_n(\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta + n}.$$

Thus the probability distribution of X_n is given, for $n \geq 1$, by:

$$h_n(\ell) = \mathbb{P}(X_n = \ell) = \frac{\theta^{\ell}}{(\theta)^{\uparrow n}} \begin{bmatrix} n \\ \ell \end{bmatrix} \mathbb{1}_{1 \le \ell \le n},$$

see [Pit06, Section 3.1.3]. For instance,

$$Q_{n,k,k+1} = \frac{\theta}{n+\theta} = c_n(\theta) \ a(n+1,k) \ \theta.$$

and

$$p_{1}(n,k) = P_{(n,k),(n-1,k-1)} = \frac{h_{n-1}(k-1)Q_{n-1,k-1,k}}{h_{n}(k)}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{\theta^{k-1}}{(\theta)^{n-1\uparrow}} {n-1 \brack k-1} \times \frac{\theta}{n-1+\theta}}{{n \brack k} \frac{\theta^{k}}{(\theta)^{n\uparrow}}} = \frac{{n-1 \brack k-1}}{{n \brack k}},$$

as expected.

2.5 One-dimensional Internal Diffusion Limited Aggregation process

Diaconis and Fulton [DF91] introduced the internal Diffusion Limited Aggregation process (iDLA). Lawler, Bramson and Griffeath [LBG92] coined the terminology iDLA, and obtained an asymptotic shape behaviour. In the iDLA process, an aggregate of particles on \mathbb{Z}^d is built as follows:

- i) the first particle settles at the origin;
- ii) the next particles perform a symmetric random walk on \mathbb{Z}^d , starting from the origin, and settle at the first empty site they encounter.

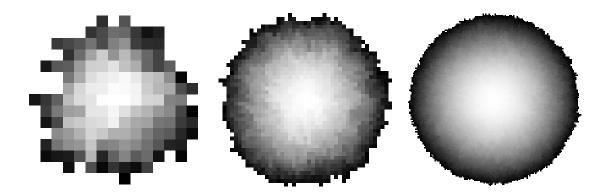


Figure 12: Normalized iDLA aggregates with 150, 1,500 and 15,000 particles on \mathbb{Z}^2 .

When d = 1, let X_n denote the number of particles settled to the right of the origin after the *n*th step. Then, according to [Mit20], the process $(X_n)_n$ is an inhomogeneous Markov chain with the same distribution as the sequence of number of descents of the sequence of random permutations defined previously. Both processes have the one-dimensional distribution below

$$\mathbb{P}(X_n = k) = h_n(k) = \frac{\left\langle n \atop k \right\rangle}{n!} \mathbb{1}_{(n,k) \in S}.$$

In the case of the one-dimensional iDLA we can stack successive aggregates upon one another to form a space-time diagram. As with Figure 12, the longer it took to visit a cell, the darker we color it.

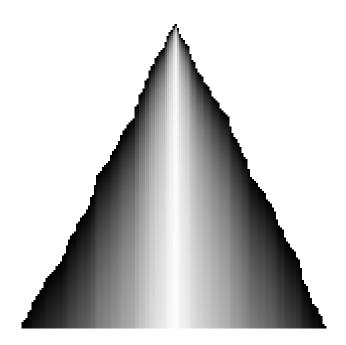


Figure 13: Space-time diagram of a one-dimensional iDLA.

Proof of Proposition 4. In this example, we have :

$$T(n,k) = \left\langle {n \atop k} \right\rangle, \quad T_n(1) = \sum_k T(n,k) = n!, \quad c_n(1) = \frac{1}{n}.$$

Thus the probability distribution of X_n is given, for $n \geq 1$, by:

$$h_n(\ell) = \mathbb{P}(X_n = \ell) = \frac{1}{n!} \left\langle {n \atop \ell} \right\rangle \, \mathbb{1}_{1 \le \ell \le n},$$

see [Pit06, Section 3.1.3]. For instance,

$$Q_{n,k,k+1} = \frac{n-k}{n+1} = c_n(1) \ a(n+1,k).$$

and

$$p_{1}(n,k) = P_{(n,k),(n-1,k-1)} = \frac{h_{n-1}(k-1)Q_{n-1,k-1,k}}{h_{n}(k)}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{1}{n-1!} \left\langle \binom{n-1}{k-1} \times \frac{n-k}{n}}{\binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{n!}} = \frac{\left\langle \binom{n-1}{k-1} \times (n-k) \times \binom{n-k}{k} \times \binom{n-k}{k} \right\rangle}{\left\langle \binom{n}{k} \times \binom{n-k}{k} \times \binom{n-k}{k} \times \binom{n-k}{k} \times \binom{n-k}{k} \right\rangle},$$

as expected.

3 The limit vector field

3.1 Proof of Theorem 1

One can see the set of average jumps from $(n, k) \in S$,

$$v(n,k) = p_0(n,k) \times (-1,0) + p_1(n,k) \times (-1,-1)$$

= $(-1, -p_1(n,k))$,

as a kind of discrete vector field on S, with slope $p_1(n, k)$ at point (n, k). As a consequence, the convergence of the sample paths of the time-reversed Markov chains of Section 1.3 (see Theorem 2) requires a precise asymptotic analysis of

$$p_1(n,k) = \frac{a(n,k)T(n-1,k-1)}{T(n,k)},$$

and thus, of T(n,k). Consider the generating functions V_k and H_n defined by

$$V_k(z) = \sum_{n=k}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} T(n,k) z^n, \quad H_n(w) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{1}{\varepsilon_n} T(n,k) w^k,$$

respectively. In the first three cases, V_k exhibits a factorisation $A \times B^k$ suitable for the saddle-point method, while, for eulerian numbers, H_n is approximately of the form B^n , allowing the use of large deviations methods. Due to these factorisations, the limit vector field depends only on the slope y/x, and the function φ depends on B alone, in the first 3 cases through the saddle-point equation

$$\frac{B'\left(\zeta\right)}{B\left(\zeta\right)} = \frac{1+\lambda}{\zeta},\tag{6}$$

obtained by optimisation of the function $x \to \frac{B(x)}{x^{1+\lambda}}$ on $(0, +\infty)$, and, for eulerian numbers, through the Legendre transformation of $\ln B$, leading to the equation:

$$\frac{B'\left(\zeta\right)}{B\left(\zeta\right)} = \frac{1}{1+\lambda}.\tag{7}$$

Proof of Theorem 1. But for eulerian numbers, let $\zeta(\lambda)$ be defined implicitly by (6), i.e. let $\zeta(.)$ be the inverse function of :

$$x \longrightarrow \frac{xB'(x)}{B(x)} - 1.$$

The eulerian case is similar, but uses large deviations rather than saddle-point methods, and will be handled separately. In the remaining 3 cases, recall that a(n, k) = 1, and set:

$$1 + \lambda = \frac{n}{k}, \quad \zeta = \zeta(\lambda), \quad 1 + \tilde{\lambda} = \frac{n-1}{k-1}, \quad \tilde{\zeta} = \zeta(\tilde{\lambda}).$$

For these 3 cases, the saddle-point method, see [FS09, Part B, Chap. VIII], leads to

$$T(n,k) \sim \frac{\varepsilon_n}{\varepsilon_k} \left(\frac{B(\zeta)}{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}\right)^k f(n,k),$$

in which f(.,.) is some factor such that $f(n,k) \sim f(n-1,k-1)$. The factor $\varepsilon_n/\varepsilon_k$ matters only for the enumeration of sets of labelled structures (subsets or cycles, for the 2 Stirling's triangles, cf. [FS09, Part A]) and thus does not appear for Pascal's triangle: in the case of labelled structures, the factor n! is due to the use of EGFs, and since we consider sets, not sequences, of k objects, i.e. unordered collections, the generating function V_k has a factor 1/k!. As a consequence, for the two Stirling triangles, we have

$$p_{1}(n,k) \sim \frac{a(n,k) k}{n} \frac{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\tilde{\lambda}}}{B(\tilde{\zeta})} \left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})}{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\tilde{\lambda}}} \frac{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}{B(\zeta)} \right)^{k}$$
$$\sim \frac{1}{1+\lambda} \frac{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}{B(\zeta)} \left(\frac{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\lambda}}{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\tilde{\lambda}}} \right)^{k} \left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})}{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\lambda}} \frac{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}{B(\zeta)} \right)^{k}$$
$$\sim \frac{1}{1+\lambda} \frac{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}{B(\zeta)} \zeta^{(\lambda-\tilde{\lambda})k},$$

the last step due to

$$\lim_{k} k \ln \left(\frac{B\left(\tilde{\zeta}\right)}{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\lambda}} \frac{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}{B\left(\zeta\right)} \right) = 0.$$
 (8)

Actually, since ζ is solution of the saddle-point equation, the derivative of

$$x \to \ln\left(\frac{B(x)}{x^{1+\lambda}}\right)$$

vanishes at ζ , thus

$$\ln\left(\frac{B\left(\tilde{\zeta}\right)}{\tilde{\zeta}^{1+\lambda}}\frac{\zeta^{1+\lambda}}{B\left(\zeta\right)}\right) = o\left(\tilde{\zeta} - \zeta\right) = o\left(\lambda - \tilde{\lambda}\right),\,$$

but

$$\lambda - \tilde{\lambda} = \frac{n}{k} - \frac{n-1}{k-1} \sim \frac{-\lambda}{k},$$

entailing (8). Thus

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{1}{1+\lambda} \frac{\zeta}{B(\zeta)}.$$

Finally, for Stirling's triangles, the saddle-point equation (6) gives

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{1}{B'(\zeta)},$$

For Pascal's triangle, $\binom{n}{k}$ enumerates words with n letters, k among them being a's and the n-k others being b's, thus Pascal's triangle enumerates sequences (not

sets) of unlabelled objects¹, for which one usually uses OGFs. As a consequence, compared with the previous computation, we are rid of the factor n!/k! in T(n,k), and of the factor $k/n = 1/(1+\lambda)$ in $p_1(n,k)$, thus we obtain

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{\zeta}{B(\zeta)}.$$

Before we turn to the case of eulerian numbers, let us derive φ for each of the 3 first cases :

• Pascal's triangle:

$$V_{k,1}(z) = \sum_{n \ge k} \binom{n}{k} z^n = \frac{1}{1-z} \left(\frac{z}{1-z}\right)^k,$$

$$B_1(z) = \frac{z}{1-z},$$

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{\zeta}{B_1(\zeta)} = 1 - \zeta.$$

Here (6) can be written

$$\frac{1}{1-\zeta} = 1 + \lambda,$$

thus $\varphi_1(k/n) = \frac{1}{1+\lambda} = k/n$, that is :

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{k}{n},$$

which is not a surprise, since it is well known that, actually, $p_1(n,k) = \frac{k}{n}$.

• Stirling numbers of the second kind

Here:

$$V_{k,2}(z) = \sum_{n \ge k} {n \brace k} \frac{z^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{k!} (e^z - 1)^k,$$

$$B_2(z) = e^z - 1,$$

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{1}{B_2'(\zeta)} = e^{-\zeta},$$

and (6) can be written

$$\frac{\zeta}{1 - e^{-\zeta}} = 1 + \lambda,\tag{9}$$

see [AC19]. According to Good and others, ζ is a smooth concave function of $\lambda > 0$, with positive values. Thus

$$\varphi_2(k/n) = e^{-\zeta(\frac{n}{k}-1)}.$$

Note that (9) is the equation to be solved when one wants to tune the parameter ζ of a Poisson random variable *conditioned to be positive* in order to obtain the expectation $1 + \lambda$.

¹Such a word is a sequence of k words of the form $b^m a$ followed by a word of the form b^m .

• Stirling numbers of the first kind (unsigned)

$$V_{k,3}(z) = \sum_{n \ge k} {n \brack k} \frac{z^n}{n!} = \frac{1}{k!} \left(-\ln(1-z) \right)^k,$$

$$B_3(z) = -\ln(1-z),$$

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{1}{B_3'(\zeta)} = 1 - \zeta.$$

Here (6) can be written

$$\frac{\zeta}{(\zeta - 1)\ln(1 - \zeta)} = 1 + \lambda,\tag{10}$$

which defines ζ as smooth concave function of $\lambda > 0$, with values in (0,1). Thus

$$\varphi_3(k/n) = 1 - \zeta\left(\frac{n}{k} - 1\right). \tag{11}$$

Note that (10) is the equation to be solved when one wants to tune the parameter ζ of a logarithmic probability distribution in order to obtain the expectation $1 + \lambda$.

• Eulerian numbers

Though the computation of φ_4 has a similar flavour, it presents some notable differences. In order to sum up the asymptotic analysis of eulerian numbers, set, as done in [Ben73]:

$$t = \frac{k}{n} = \frac{1}{1+\lambda}.$$

In [Ben73], the main tool is the approximation of $H_n(e^s)$, the Laplace transform of h_n , by

$$B(s)^{n+1} = r(s)^{-n-1} = \left(\frac{e^s - 1}{s}\right)^{n+1}.$$

In other terms, the key point in [Ben73] is that h_n is approximately the distribution of the sum of n + 1 i.i.d. uniform random variables, with Laplace transform B(s). This is reminiscent of Tanny's representation of eulerian numbers (cf. [Tan73]):

$$h_n(k) = \frac{\left\langle n \right\rangle}{n!} = \mathbb{P}\left(\left\lfloor U_1 + U_2 + \dots + U_n \right\rfloor = k \right). \tag{12}$$

Bender obtains the following asymptotic formula for $\binom{n}{k}$ when (n,k) goes to infinity

$$\frac{\left\langle n \right\rangle}{n!} \sim \left(B(\zeta)e^{-\zeta t} \right)^n f(n,k)$$

in which f(., .) is some factor such that $f(n, k) \sim f(n-1, k-1)$, and in which ζ is the only real number such that

$$\frac{1}{1+\lambda} = t = \frac{\partial}{\partial \zeta} \ln \left(\frac{e^{\zeta} - 1}{\zeta} \right)$$

$$= \frac{e^{\zeta}}{e^{\zeta} - 1} - \frac{1}{\zeta}.$$
(13)

One recognize in $\zeta(.)$ the derivative of the Legendre-Fenchel transformation of the cumulant-generating function of the uniform distribution, i.e. the unique solution of

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \zeta} \ln \left(B(\zeta) e^{-\zeta t} \right) = \frac{B'(\zeta)}{B(\zeta)} - t = 0. \tag{14}$$

As a consequence, for eulerian numbers, we have

$$p_{1}(n,k) \sim \frac{a(n,k)}{n} \left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})^{n-1}e^{-\tilde{\zeta}(k-1)}}{B(\zeta)^{n}e^{-\zeta k}} \right)$$

$$\sim \frac{a(n,k)}{n} \frac{e^{\tilde{\zeta}}}{B(\tilde{\zeta})} \left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})^{n}e^{-\tilde{\zeta}k}}{B(\zeta)^{n}e^{-\zeta k}} \right)$$

$$\sim \frac{(1-t)e^{\zeta}}{B(\zeta)} \left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})e^{-\tilde{\zeta}t}}{B(\zeta)e^{-\zeta t}} \right)^{n}$$

$$\sim \frac{(1-t)e^{\zeta}}{B(\zeta)}$$

the last step due to

$$\lim_{n} n \ln \left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})e^{-\tilde{\zeta}t}}{B(\zeta)e^{-\zeta t}} \right) = 0.$$
 (15)

Actually, since ζ is solution of (14), the derivative of

$$x \to \ln\left(B(x)e^{-xt}\right)$$

vanishes at ζ , thus

$$\ln\left(\frac{B(\tilde{\zeta})e^{-\tilde{\zeta}t}}{B(\zeta)e^{-\zeta t}}\right) = o\left(\tilde{\zeta} - \zeta\right) = o\left(t - \tilde{t}\right),\,$$

but

$$t - \tilde{t} = \frac{k}{n} - \frac{k-1}{n-1} \sim \frac{1-t}{n},$$

entailing (15). Thus

$$p_1(n,k) \sim \frac{(1-t)\zeta e^{\zeta}}{e^{\zeta} - 1} = \frac{\lambda \zeta}{(1+\lambda)(1-e^{-\zeta})} = \phi_4(\lambda).$$

Note that:

$$\zeta(1-t) = -\zeta(t), \quad \varphi_4(1-t) = 1 - \varphi_4(t) = \frac{t\zeta}{e^{\zeta} - 1},$$

as expected. \Box

4 Sample path convergence

For the sake of completeness, this section is devoted to the well known proof of Theorem 2, in the case of Pascal's triangle. In the case of Stirling numbers of the second kind, Theorem 2 was obtained in [AC19] at the price of a more tedious proof. For Stirling numbers of the first kind, and for Euler's triangle as well, we think that the same property holds true, but the proofs are still works in progress.

Proof of Theorem 2. (Pascal's triangle case) Set $p = \ell/m$ and let $(Y_i)_i$ be a sequence of i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables with parameter p. Consider $\hat{W} = (\hat{W}_k)_{0 \leqslant k \leqslant m}$ defined by $\hat{W}_k = (m - k, X_{m-k})$ where $X_n = Y_1 + \cdots + Y_n$. We have seen in Proposition 1 that the conditional distribution of \hat{W} given $\hat{W}_0 = (m, \ell)$ and the distribution of W are the same. By Hoeffding's inequality, for all t > 0, and all $n \in [0, m]$,

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_n - np| \ge t) \le 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{n}\right)$$
$$\le 2 \exp\left(-\frac{2t^2}{m}\right).$$

In particular, for all $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$ and for $t = m^{1/2+\varepsilon}$.

$$\mathbb{P}(|X_n - np| \geqslant m^{1/2 + \varepsilon}) \leqslant 2 \exp(-2m^{2\varepsilon})$$

Thus

$$\mathbb{P}(\exists n \in [0, m] \text{ s.t. } |X_n - np| \geqslant m^{1/2 + \varepsilon}) \leqslant \sum_{n=1}^m \mathbb{P}(|X_n - np| \geqslant m^{1/2 + \varepsilon})$$
$$\leqslant 2m \exp(-2m^{2\varepsilon})$$

Set

$$A_m = \left\{ \exists n \in [0, m] \text{ s.t. } ||W_n - (m - n, (m - n)p)||_1 \geqslant m^{1/2 + \varepsilon} \right\},$$
$$\hat{A}_m = \left\{ \exists n \in [0, m] \text{ s.t. } ||\hat{W}_n - (m - n, (m - n)p)||_1 \geqslant m^{1/2 + \varepsilon} \right\}.$$

Then $\mathbb{P}(\hat{A}_m) \leqslant 2m \exp(-2m^{2\varepsilon})$ and

$$\mathbb{P}(A_m) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(\hat{A}_m \cap \{X_m = \ell\})}{\mathbb{P}(X_m = \ell)} \leqslant \frac{\mathbb{P}(\hat{A}_m)}{\mathbb{P}(X_m = \ell)}$$

But

$$\mathbb{P}(X_m = \ell) = \binom{m}{\ell} p^m (1-p)^{m-\ell}$$
$$\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi p(1-p)}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}.$$

Finally, $\mathbb{P}(A_m) = \mathcal{O}(m^{3/2}e^{-2m^{2r}})$ and for $\eta = 1/2 - r \in (0, 1/2)$ and $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$,

$$\lim_{m} \mathbb{P}_{(m,\ell)} \left(\sup_{\varepsilon \leqslant t \leqslant 1} \left(\left\| \frac{1}{m} W_{\lfloor m(1-t) \rfloor} - (t, \gamma_{m,\ell}(t)) \right\|_{1} \right) \geqslant m^{-\eta} \right) = 0.$$

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