

ON THE INFINITE MULTINOMIAL EXPANSION, II

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In a previous note (Hilliker [7]) we derived, by an iterative argument, the following version of the Multinomial Expansion: If the inequalities

$$(1) \quad |a_j| < |a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{j-1}|,$$

for $j = 2, 3, \dots, r$ all hold, then

$$(2) \quad \left(\sum_{j=1}^r a_j \right)^n = \sum \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n-n_1-n_2-\dots-n_{r-1}+1)}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_{r-1}!} a_r^{n_1} a_{r-1}^{n_2} \dots a_2^{n_{r-1}} a_1^{n-n_1-n_2-\dots-n_{r-1}},$$

where the summation is an iterated summation taken under all $n_i \geq 0$, where i first takes on the value $r-1$, then $r-2$, and so on until the last value, 1, is taken on. Here n, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r are complex numbers with n not equal to a non-negative integer. On the other hand, one can assume a single inequality

$$(3) \quad |a_2 + a_3 + \dots + a_r| < |a_1|$$

and avoid the more complicated iterative argument by direct employment of the Multinomial Theorem for non-negative integral exponents. The result is that the same formal expansion (2) holds, but this time the summation is taken under all $n_i \geq 0$ with $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_{r-1} = j$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. See, for example, Chrystal [2], where a similar version is established. In this note we shall view these two forms from the perspective of a single Multinomial Expansion valid under a certain divisibility condition on r .

Let p be an integer with $1 \leq p \leq r-1$, and assume that the congruence

$$(4) \quad r \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

holds. If the inequalities

$$(5) \quad |a_{r-(i+1)p+1} + a_{r-(i+1)p+2} + \dots + a_{r-ip}| < |a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{r-(i+1)p}|,$$

for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, q$, all hold, where the non-negative integer q is given by $r = 1 + (q+1)p$, then the formal expansion (2) holds. Here the summation is taken under all $n_i \geq 0$, $1 \leq i \leq r-1$, with

$$(6) \quad n_{jp+1} + n_{jp+2} + \dots + n_{jp+p} = t_j,$$

where $t_j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, and where j first takes on the value q then $q-1$, and so on until the last value, 0, is taken on.

Our argument rests upon Abel's proof of about 1825 of the Binomial Theorem:

$$(1+z)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} z^k$$

for n and z complex and with $|z| < 1$. See Abel [1]. See also Markushevich [9], 1, for this Maclaurin expansion. Here, as usual, we define z^n as being that branch of the function $f(z) = e^{n \log z}$ defined over the complex z -plane with the non-positive real axis excluded, and with $f(1) = 1$. That is, the logarithmic function is given by $\log z = \log |z| + i \arg z$ with $|\arg z| < \pi$. The quantities $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_r$ and a_1 are not 0 by the inequalities (5) with $i = 0$ and $i = q$, respectively. We will need to assume that they are not negative real numbers. Likewise, in the course of the proof we will need to assume that the quantities $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{r-(i+1)p}$, for $0 \leq i \leq q-1$, are not negative real numbers. If n is a (negative) integer, these restrictions which guarantee single-valuedness, may, of course, be ignored.

As a first example, let $p = 1$. Then (4) automatically holds and $q = r - 2$. The inequalities (5) become identical with those of (1), and the summation conditions (6) become $n_{j+1} = t_j$ for $j = r - 2, r - 1, \dots, 0$. Thus the first mentioned form is covered.

As a second example, let $p = r - 1$. Then (4) holds, and $q = 0$. The inequalities (5) reduce to the single inequality (3). The summation conditions (6) reduce to the single condition $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_{r-1} = t_0$. Consequently, the second mentioned form is also covered.

We begin by writing

$$(7) \quad (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_r)^n = [(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{r-p}) + (a_{r-p+1} + a_{r-p+2} + \dots + a_r)]^n \\ = \sum_{t_0=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{t_0} \left(\sum_{k=r-p+1}^r a_k \right)^{t_0} \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{r-p} a_{\ell} \right)^{n-t_0}.$$

Here we have used the inequality (5) for the case $i = 0$.

Since $n - t_0 \neq 0$, we may apply Formula (7) to the summation under ℓ on the right side of (7). We may repeat this iterative process. After m iterations of (7), $m \geq 0$ and not too large, one obtains, by using (5) for $i = 0, 1, \dots, m$,

$$(8) \quad (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_r)^n = \sum_{t_0, t_1, \dots, t_m=0}^{\infty} \prod_{j=0}^m \binom{n - t_0 - \dots - t_{j-1}}{t_j} \left(\sum_{k=r-(j+1)p+1}^{r-jp} a_k \right)^{t_j} \\ \times \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{r-(m+1)p} a_{\ell} \right)^{n-t_0-t_1-\dots-t_m}.$$

First we apply the Multinomial Theorem for non-negative integral exponents to the summation under k on the right side of (8). Since this summation contains p terms, we can write

$$(9) \quad \left(\sum_{k=r-(j+1)p+1}^{r-jp} a_k \right)^{t_j} = \sum \frac{t_j!}{n_{jp+1}! n_{jp+2}! \dots n_{jp+p}!} a_{r-jp}^{n_{jp+1}} a_{r-jp-1}^{n_{jp+2}} \dots a_{r-jp-p+1}^{n_{jp+p}},$$

where the summation is taken under all non-negative values of the p integers $n_{jp+1}, n_{jp+2}, \dots, n_{jp+p}$ subject to the restriction (6).

Secondly we observe that

$$(10) \quad \prod_{j=0}^m \binom{n - t_0 - t_1 - \dots - t_{j-1}}{t_j} = \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n - n_1 - n_2 - \dots - n_{mp+p} + 1)}{t_0! t_1! \dots t_m!}$$

since, by (6), $t_0 + t_1 + \dots + t_m = n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_{mp+p}$.

Finally we note that from (4) we can choose m in such a way that $r - (m + 1)p = 1$, so that the summation under ℓ on the right side of (8) reduces to a single term.

Thus it follows from (8), (9) and (10) that

$$(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_r)^n = \sum_{t_0, t_1, \dots, t_m=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(n-1) \dots (n - n_1 - n_2 - \dots - n_{r-1} + 1)}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_{r-1}!} \\ \times a_r^{n_1} a_{r-1}^{n_2} \dots a_2^{n_{r-1}} a_1^{n - n_1 - n_2 - \dots - n_{r-1}},$$

where the summation is first taken under t_m , then under t_{m-1} , and so on until the last summation is taken under t_0 .

Our expository sequence of papers on the Binomial Theorem, the Multinomial Theorem, and various Multinomial Expansions (Hilliker [3], [4], [5], [6], [7] and the present paper) will continue (Hilliker [8]).

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Let q^b denote one of the $p_i^{a_i}$ and P denote $q^{b-2}(q-1)^2$. Now,

$$(3) \quad q^{b-2}(q-1)^2 = q^{b-1}(q-2+1/q).$$

From (3), it can be seen that $P > 1$, for all q , and that $P > 8$, for all $q \geq 11$. Furthermore, for $q < 11$, the following table can be obtained, by checking the right side of (3) for the case $b = 1$, and the left side of (3) for the case $b \geq 2$.

Prime q	3	3	5	5	7	7
Exponent b	2	3	1	2	1	2
P greater than or equal to	4	8	2	8	4	8

Hence, (2) holds for $p-1$ possibly equal to $2 \cdot 3$, $2 \cdot 3^2$, $2 \cdot 5$, $2 \cdot 7$, $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$, $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$ ($a = 1$); $4 \cdot 3$, $4 \cdot 5$, $4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ ($a = 2$); or $8 \cdot 3$ ($a = 3$); and (2) fails to hold for all other choices. These combinations lead to the primes 7, 11, 13, 19, 31, 43, 61.

Theorem 3. If p is a prime greater than 5, then the primitive roots are not consecutive.

Proof. For the primes excluded in the Lemma, the primitive roots are: for $7 - 3, 5$; for $11 - 2, 6, 7, 8$; for $13 - 2, 6, 7, 11$; for $19 - 2, 3, 10, 13, 14, 15$; for $31 - 3, 11, 12, 13, 17, 21, 22, 24$; for $43 - 3, 5, 12, 18, 19, 20, 26, 28, 29, 30, 33, 34$; for $61 - 2, 6, 7, 10, 17, 18, 26, 30, 31, 35, 43, 44, 51, 54, 55, 59$. None of these primes have consecutive primitive roots.

Now, let p denote a prime for which the Lemma applies and suppose that k is a positive integer for which $k^2 \leq p-1$. Then,

$$k^2 - (k-1)^2 = 2 \cdot k - 1 < 2 \cdot k \leq 2\sqrt{p-1} \leq \phi(p-1).$$

Therefore, consecutive squares appear within a span less than $\phi(p-1)$. Since squares are quadratic residues, and therefore not primitive roots, no string of consecutive primitive roots can be of length $\phi(p-1)$. Consequently, the primitive roots are not consecutive.
