# MULTILINEAR FUNCTIONS OF ROW STOCHASTIC MATRICES 

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1. Introduction. In the study of inequalities, the cases of equality are often the most difficult and interesting part. The case of equality is, in some sense, a measure of the tightness of the inequality. In this paper, we generalize two inequalities of Brualdi and Newman [1, Theorems 3, 4], but the instances of equality are probably more interesting because of the variety of cases which can occur.

Let $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ be an $n \times n$ matrix. Define the permanent of $A$ by

$$
\operatorname{per}(A)=\sum_{\sigma \in S_{n}} \prod_{t=1}^{n} a_{t, \sigma(t)}
$$

We say that $A$ is row stochastic if all entries are non-negative and all row sums are 1. In [1], several inequalities involving permanents of row stochastic matrices were proved. In two of these results, the case of equality was not determined. We will generalize both of these results to a class of functions which includes the permanent, and determine all cases of equality. All proofs are purely combinatorial. We assume familiarity with [1].
2. Results. Let $1 \leqq r \leqq n$. Define $Q_{r, n}$ to be the $\binom{n}{r}$ strictly increasing sequences $\alpha=\left(\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{r}\right)$ of length $r$ chosen from $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. If $\alpha, \beta \in Q_{r, n}$, let $A[\alpha \mid \beta]$ be the $r \times r$ submatrix whose $(i, j)$ entry is $a_{\alpha_{i}, \beta_{j}}$. If $\beta=\alpha$, we write $A[\alpha]$. Let $H$ be a subgroup of $S_{n}$ and set

$$
d_{H}(A)=\sum_{\sigma \in H} \prod_{t=1}^{n} a_{t, \sigma(t)} .
$$

If $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$, let $H(\alpha)$ be the subgroup of $H$ consisting of all $\sigma \in H$ which fix each integer not in $\alpha$. Define

$$
d^{r}(A[\alpha])=\sum_{\sigma \in H(\alpha)} \prod_{t=1}^{r} a_{\alpha t, \sigma(\alpha)} .
$$

Let $r+s=n$. If $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$, let $\alpha^{\prime}$ be the sequence in $Q_{s, n}$ complimentary to $\alpha$. For convenience, let $\Omega$ be the set of all permutation matrices.

Theorem 1. Let $1 \leqq r \leqq n-1$. If $A$ is row stochastic, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\alpha \in Q_{r, n}} d^{r}(A[\alpha])\left(1-d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)\right) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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Note that, if $H=S_{n}$, then $d_{H}, d^{r}$, and $d^{s}$ are all permanents and (1) becomes [1, Theorem 3].

Theorem 2. Equality holds in (1) if and only if $d_{H}(A)=\operatorname{per}(A)$ and $A$ is permutation isomorphic to a matrix $B$ having one of the following forms:
(a) $A$ is a permutation matrix;
(b)

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
x_{1} & x_{2} \ldots x_{n} \\
\hline 0 & P
\end{array}\right],
$$

where $P \in \Omega$ and $P$ is the identity if $r \leqq n-2$;
(c)

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{cc|c}
x & 1-x & 0 \\
y & 1-y & \\
\hline 0 & P
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $P \in \Omega$ and $P$ is the identity if $r \leqq n-2$;
(d)

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c}
0 & x & 1-x & \\
1-y & 0 & y & 0 \\
z & 1-z & 0 & \\
\hline & 0 & & P
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $r=n-1$ and $P \in \Omega$.
It is of interest to note that the cases of equality are independent of the group $H$. Also note that the four cases can overlap.

From Theorem 2, we easily obtain
Theorem 3 . Let $1 \leqq r \leqq n-1$. Let $A$ be $n \times n$ row stochastic. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\alpha \in Q_{r, n}} d^{r}(A[\alpha]) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}+\binom{n-1}{r-1} d_{H}(A) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality holds in (2) if and only if $d_{H}(A)=\operatorname{per}(A)$ and $A$ is permutation isomorphic to a matrix $B$ of the form (b) in Theorem 2, or $r=n-1$ and $A$ is permutation isomorphic to a matrix $B$ of the form

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c}
0 & x & 1-x & \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \\
\hline & 0 & P
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $P \in \Omega$.
Brualdi and Newman determined the case of equality in (2) when $A$ is doubly stochastic. From Theorem 3, the only possibility is the identity matrix.
3. Proofs. For a fixed $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$, consider the expression

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{r}(A[\alpha])\left(1-d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)\right) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Replace the 1 in (3) by

$$
\prod_{j \in \alpha^{\prime}}\left(a_{j 1}+\ldots+a_{j n}\right) .
$$

Then rewrite (3) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\rho} \sum_{\sigma} a_{\alpha_{1} \rho\left(\alpha_{1}\right)} \ldots a_{\alpha_{r} \rho\left(\alpha_{r}\right)} a_{\alpha_{1}^{\prime} \sigma\left(\alpha_{1}^{\prime}\right)} \ldots a_{\alpha_{s^{\prime}} \sigma\left(\alpha_{s^{\prime}}\right)} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\rho$ runs over $H(\alpha)$ and $\sigma$ runs over all functions of $\left\{\alpha_{1}{ }^{\prime}, \ldots, \alpha_{s}{ }^{\prime}\right\}$ into $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $\sigma \notin H\left(\alpha^{\prime}\right)$. Every term in (4) appears as a term in

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\tau} a_{1 \tau(1)} \ldots a_{n \tau(n)}=\sum_{\tau} a_{\tau} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tau$ runs over all functions of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ into itself except for those which are permutations in $H$. All terms in (4) are formally distinct, but a term in the sum (5) may occur in (4) for more than one $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$.

Thus far, we have imitated the procedure in [1], and we also call on [1] to conclude that if $\tau \notin S_{n}$, then $a_{\tau}$ can appear in (4) for at most $\binom{n-1}{r}$ distinct $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$. Suppose that $\tau \in S_{n}$, but $\tau \notin H$. We must show that $a_{\tau}$ occurs in (4) for at most $\binom{n-1}{r} \alpha \in Q_{r, n}$.

If $\tau \notin H$, then, in particular, $\tau$ is not the identity. If $a_{\tau}$ occurs in (4) for some $\alpha$, then the action of $\tau$ on $\alpha$ corresponds to a member of $H(\alpha)$. Since $\tau \notin H$, it cannot fix every member of $\alpha^{\prime}$. Thus we pick $i_{1}, j_{1} \in \alpha^{\prime}$ such that $\tau\left(i_{1}\right)=j_{1}$. If $\beta$ is another member of $Q_{r, n}$ for which $a_{\tau}$ occurs in (4), then both $i_{1}, j_{1}$ are in $\beta$ or both are in $\beta^{\prime}$. The number of elements in $Q_{r, n}$ satisfying this condition for $i_{1}, j_{1}$ is

$$
\binom{n-2}{r}+\binom{n-2}{r-2} .
$$

If there is a $\beta$ in $Q_{r, n}$ such that $a_{\tau}$ occurs in (4) and $i_{1}, j_{1} \in \beta$, then we can pick $i_{2}, j_{2} \in \beta^{\prime}$ such that $\tau\left(i_{2}\right)=j_{2}$. For all $\alpha \in Q_{\tau, n}$ such that $a_{\tau}$ appears in (4), $i_{2}, j_{2}$ are both in $\alpha$ or both in $\alpha^{\prime}$. The number of $\alpha$ in $Q_{r, n}$ satisfying the above conditions on the pairs $\left(i_{1}, j_{1}\right)$ and $\left(i_{2}, j_{2}\right)$ is

$$
\binom{n-4}{r}+2\binom{n-4}{r-2}+\binom{n-4}{r-4}
$$

Continue this procedure until we obtain $k$ pairs $\left(i_{1}, j_{1}\right),\left(i_{2}, j_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(i_{k}, j_{k}\right)$ such that if $a_{\tau}$ appears in (4) for some $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$. Then each pair is in $\alpha$ or in $\alpha^{\prime}$. Moreover, not all $k$ pairs are in $\alpha$; otherwise, we could make an additional step. The total number of $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$ satisfying these conditions on the $k$ pairs is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{t=0}^{k-1}\binom{k}{t}\binom{n-2 k}{r-2 t} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

For small values of $n$, we easily verify that (6) is strictly less than $\binom{n-1}{r}$.
Thus, if

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{t=0}^{k-1}\binom{k}{t}\binom{n-2 k}{r-2 t} & <\binom{n-1}{r}, \\
\sum_{t=0}^{k-1}\binom{k}{t}\binom{n-2 k}{r-1-2 t} & <\binom{n-1}{r-1},
\end{aligned}
$$

addition yields the inequality for the case $n+1$. Thus, if $\tau \in S_{n} \backslash H, a_{\tau}$ occurs in (4) for fewer than $\binom{n-1}{r} \alpha \in Q_{r, n}$. Since (5) is $1-d_{H}(A)$, Theorem 1
is proved. is proved.

We now assume that equality holds in (1). We will apply a lemma of Marcus and Pierce [ $\mathbf{2}$, Theorem 2], which we state here in a form suitable to us.

Lemma 1. Let $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ be $n \times n$. Let $\Gamma_{m}$ be the set of integer sequences $\gamma=\left(\gamma_{1}, \ldots, \gamma_{n}\right), 1 \leqq \gamma_{i} \leqq n$, such that some integer occurs in $\gamma$ with multiplicity at least $m$. Suppose that for all $\gamma \in \Gamma_{m}, a_{1 \gamma_{1}} \ldots a_{n \gamma_{n}}=0$. Then every column of $A$ has fewer than $m$ non-zero entries.

Lemma 2. If equality holds in (1), then every column of $A$ has at most 2 nonzero entries.

Proof. From the proof of (1), we see that for each $\tau$ which is not in $H$, either $a_{\tau}$ occurs in (4) for exactly $\binom{n-1}{r} \alpha \in Q_{\tau, n}$, or $a_{\tau}=0$. But if $\tau \in \Gamma_{3}$, there cannot be $\binom{n-1}{r}$ distinct $\alpha$ in $Q_{r, n}$ for which $a_{\tau}$ appears in (4). Thus, $a_{\tau}=0$ if $\tau \in \Gamma_{3}$ and we apply Lemma 1.

In addition, if two distinct integers both occur at least twice in $\tau$, then $a_{\tau}=0$. Thus, we cannot find rows $i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3}, i_{4}$ and columns $j_{1}, j_{2}$ in $A$ such that $a_{i_{1} j_{1}} a_{i_{2} j_{2}} a_{i_{3} j_{2}} a_{i_{4} j_{2}} \neq 0$. Let us say that a matrix satisfying this condition and that of Lemma 2 satisfies (*).

For convenience, we now eliminate one case of equality in (1).
Lemma 3. If equality holds in (1) and $A$ has a zero column, then $A$ falls into class (b) of Theorem 2.

Proof. Our problem is invariant under permutation isomorphism if we use a suitable group conjugate to $H$, so assume that column 1 of $A$ is zero. Then (1) becomes

$$
\sum_{\substack{\alpha \in+r, n \\ 1 \neq \alpha}} d^{r}(A[\alpha]) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r} .
$$

Thus, for equality in (1), we must have $d^{r}(A[\alpha])=1$ for all $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}, 1 \notin \alpha$, and this is possible only if $A[2, \ldots, n] \in \Omega$ if $r=n-1$ and $A[2, \ldots, n]$ is the identity if $r \leqq n-2$. Lemma 3 is proved, and henceforth we will assume that $A$ has no zero column.

Lemma 4. Let $A$ be a row stochastic matrix satisfying (*). Then the number of rows in $A$ which have $a 1$ is at least $n-3$.

Proof. We use induction on $n$. Verification for $n=4,5$ is easy, so assume that $n \geqq 6$. First, assume that there are 1 's in $A$, so we may take $a_{n n}=1$. If $a_{1 n}=\ldots=a_{n-1, n}=0$, induction applies to $A[1, \ldots, n-1]$ and the lemma is proved. Otherwise, let $a_{n-1, n}=x \neq 0$. Let $B$ be the matrix obtained from $A$ by adding $x$ to $a_{n-1, n-1}$. By $\left(^{*}\right), a_{1 n}=\ldots=a_{n-2, n}=0$, so $B[1, \ldots, n-1]$ is row stochastic. It is easily verified that $B[1, \ldots, n-1]$ satisfies (*), so induction applies. If $x$ were 1 , the lemma would be proved. If $0<x<1$, we may conclude that $A$ has at most four rows which have no 1 and that every column of $A$ which has a 1 also has exactly one other non-zero entry which is less than 1 . Thus, if there are exactly $n-41$ 's in $A, A$ is permutation equivalent to a matrix $B$ of the form

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
B_{1} & B_{2} \\
\hline 0 & I_{n-4}
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $B_{1}$ is $4 \times 4$ and every column of $B_{2}$ has a non-zero entry less than 1 . But $n \geqq 6$, so in order to avoid violation of (*), we must have all non-zero entries of $B_{2}$ in the same row, say the first. Then rows $2,3,4$ of $B_{1}$ each have at least 2 non-zero entries. Thus, $B_{1}[2,3,4 \mid 1,2,3,4]$ has a column with two non-zero entries and $B$ cannot satisfy (*).

Finally, assume that $A$ has no 1's. Let the non-zero elements in column $n$ be among $a_{n n}$ and $a_{n-1, n}$. Again replace $a_{n-1, n-1}$ with $a_{n-1, n-1}+a_{n-1, n}$. Then $A[1, \ldots, n-1]$ has at least $n-51$ 's, so $n \leqq 5$. This proves Lemma 4 .

Lemma 5. If equality holds in (1), then for all $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
d_{H}(A) & =\operatorname{per}(A)  \tag{7}\\
d^{r}(A[\alpha]) & =\operatorname{per}(A[\alpha])  \tag{8}\\
d^{r}(A[\alpha])\left(1-d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)\right) & =\operatorname{per}(A[\alpha])\left(1-\operatorname{per}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)\right) \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. Let $\tau \in S_{n} \backslash H$. If $a_{\tau} \neq 0$, there are $\binom{n-1}{r} \alpha$ 's in $Q_{r, n}$ for which $a_{\tau}$ appears in (4). But (6) is strictly less than $\binom{n-1}{r}$ so $a_{\tau}=0$. This proves (7). Now suppose that $A[\alpha]$ and $A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]$ both contain diagonals with no zeros. The union of these two diagonals, by (7), corresponds to a member of $H$. Using the Laplace expansion theorem of Marcus and Soules [3], expand $d_{H}(A)$ by rows $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{r}$. One of the terms in the expansion will be $d^{r}(A[\alpha])\left(d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)\right)$ and the product of the two diagonals mentioned must appear in this term. Since $d_{H}(A)=\operatorname{per}(A), d^{r}(A[\alpha])=\operatorname{per}(A[\alpha])$ and $d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)=\operatorname{per}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)$, so (8) and (9) are satisfied. If all diagonals of $A[\alpha]$ contain a zero, then (8) and (9) are satisfied. Finally, suppose that $A[\alpha]$ has
a diagonal with no zeros, but $\operatorname{per}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)=0$. If $d^{r}(A[\alpha])<\operatorname{per}(A[\alpha])$, we would have

$$
\begin{aligned}
d^{r}(A[\alpha])\left(1-d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right)\right) & =d^{r}(A[\alpha]) \\
& <\operatorname{per}(A[\alpha])
\end{aligned}
$$

and thus (1) would be strict inequality. Lemma 5 is proved.
We will use Lemma 5 repeatedly for specific computations. We now have $A$ permutation equivalent to a matrix $B$ of the form

$$
B=\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
B_{1} & B_{2} \\
\hline 0 & C
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $B_{1}$ is of degree 3 or less, no 1 's occur in $B_{1}$ or $B_{2}$, and $C$ is a $(0,1)$ matrix.
Lemma 6. If $B_{1}$ is $2 \times 2$ or $3 \times 3$, then $C \in \Omega$.
Proof. We do the $2 \times 2$ case; the $3 \times 3$ case is the same. Since $B$ satisfies ( $\left.{ }^{*}\right)$, if $C \notin \Omega$, assume that $C$ has the form

$$
C=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
1 & & & & & 0 \\
1 & & & & 0 & \cdot \\
\cdot & \cdot & & & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & \cdot & & & \cdot \\
\cdot & & & \cdot & & \\
0 & & & & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Then $B_{2}$ has all zeros, except for exactly one non-zero element in column $n$. (Recall that $A$ has no zero columns.) Then $B_{1}$ has at least 3 non-zero entries, and hence one column of $B_{1}$ has 2 non-zero entries. This violates (*).

Lemma 7. If $B_{1}$ is $2 \times 2$, then $B_{2}$ has at least one zero row. If $B_{1}$ is $3 \times 3$, then $B_{2}$ is zero.

Proof. This is an easy consequence of ( ${ }^{*}$ ).
Lemma 8. If $B_{1}$ is $2 \times 2$ or $3 \times 3$, then $B_{1}$ is a principal submatrix of $A$.
Proof. As in Lemma 6, we give the proof for the $2 \times 2$ case; the $3 \times 3$ case is similar, but more tedious. Suppose that $B_{1}$ does not intersect the main diagonal of $A$. Assume, then, that $B_{1}=A[1,2 \mid 3,4]$, with $a_{11}=a_{12}=0$, $a_{13}=x, a_{14}=1-x$, by Lemma 7. By Lemmas 5 and 6 , the right side of (1) is

$$
\binom{n-1}{r}\left(1-\operatorname{per}\left(B_{1}\right)\right) .
$$

Consider the possibilities for $\{1,2,3,4\} \cap \alpha$, as $\alpha$ runs through $Q_{r, n}$. If all of $1,2,3,4$ are in $\alpha$, and $d^{r}(A[\alpha]) \neq 0$, then by Lemma $5, d^{r}(A[\alpha])=$ $\operatorname{per}(A[\alpha])=\operatorname{per}\left(B_{1}\right)$. Thus, by Lemma $6, A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right] \in \Omega$, so we get a zero term on
the left of (1). Thus, the left side of (1) is at most

$$
\begin{align*}
& \binom{n-4}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)+\binom{n-4}{r-1} a_{22}  \tag{11}\\
& +\binom{n-4}{r-2}\left(x\left(1-a_{24}\right)\right. \\
& \left.+a_{24}(1-x)+(1-x)\left(a_{23}\right)+a_{23}(1-x)\right) \\
& \\
& +\binom{n-4}{r-3}\left(x\left(\max _{j \neq 3,4} a_{2 j}\right)+(1-x)\left(\max _{j \neq 3,4} a_{2 j}\right)\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

The coefficient of $\binom{n-4}{r-k}$ comes from considering those $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$ such that the cardinality of $\{1,2,3,4\} \cap \alpha$ is $k$. Now (11) is strictly less than

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left(\binom{n-4}{r}+\binom{n-4}{r-1}+2\binom{n-4}{r-2}+\binom{n-4}{r-3}\right)\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right) \\
& \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

The strictness follows because $1 \leqq r \leqq n-1$,
so

$$
\binom{n-4}{r-3}>0
$$

and because $0<x<1$, so

$$
\max _{j \neq 3,4} a_{2 j} \leqq 1-a_{23}-a_{24}<1-a_{23}(1-x)-a_{24} x=1-d_{H}(A)
$$

Now suppose that $B_{1}$ intersects the main diagonal of $A$ at exactly one point. It suffices to assume that $B_{1}=A[1,2 \mid 2,3]$ and that $a_{12}=x, a_{13}=1-x$. The left side of (1) is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \binom{n-3}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)+\binom{n-3}{r-1}\left(a_{22}\right)+\binom{n-3}{r-2}\left(\max _{j \neq 2,3} a_{2 j} x+(1-x)\left(1-a_{22}\right)\right) \\
& \quad<\left(\binom{n-3}{r}+\binom{n-3}{r-1}+\binom{n-3}{r-2}\right)\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

We remark that from Lemma 7 , if $B_{1}$ is $3 \times 3, B_{1}$ is permutation equivalent to a matrix $C_{1}$ of the form

$$
C_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
x & 1-x & 0 \\
0 & y & 1-y \\
1-z & 0 & z
\end{array}\right]
$$

$0<x, y, z<1$. When attempting to prove that $B_{1}$ is principal in $A$, we must consider how many zeros there are in the intersection of $B_{1}$ with the main diagonal of $A$.

We now finish Theorem 2. If $B_{1}$ is $3 \times 3, A$ is the direct sum of $B_{1}$ and an $(n-3) \times(n-3)$ matrix in $\Omega$. As stated in the previous remark, there are
three possibilities for $B_{1}$ :

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
B_{1}= & {\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
x & 1-x & 0 \\
0 & y & 1-y \\
1-z & 0 & z
\end{array}\right],}
\end{array} \begin{array}{ccc}
x & 0 & 1-x \\
0 & 1-y & y \\
1-z & z & 0
\end{array}\right],
$$

$0<x, y, z<1$. In all cases, $1-d_{H}(A)=x+y+z-x y-x z-y z$. In the first case, the left of (1) is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \binom{n-3}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)+\binom{n-3}{r-1}(x(1-y z)+y(1-x z)+z(1-x y)) \\
& \quad+\binom{n-3}{r-2}(x y(1-z)+x z(1-y)+y z(1-x)) \\
& <\left(\binom{n-3}{r}+2\binom{n-3}{r-1}+\binom{n-3}{r-2}\right)\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)=\binom{n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

In the second case, we similarly verify strict inequality in (1). In the third case, the left side of (1) is at most

$$
\begin{align*}
\binom{n-3}{r} & \left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)+\binom{n-3}{r-1} \cdot 0  \tag{12}\\
& +\binom{n-3}{r-2}(x(1-y)+y(1-z)+z(1-x)) \\
& =\left(\binom{n-3}{r}+\binom{n-3}{r-2}\right)\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Equality holds in (12) if and only if

$$
\binom{n-3}{r-1}=0
$$

i.e., $r=n-1$. By Lemma $6, A[4, \ldots, n] \in \Omega$, so $A$ satisfies ( $d$ ) in Theorem 2 .

If $B_{1}$ is $2 \times 2$, let $B_{1}=A[1,2]$ and set

$$
B_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
x & 1-x \\
y & z
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Thus $d_{H}(A)=x z+y(1-x)$, so the left side of (1) is at most

$$
\begin{align*}
\binom{n-2}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)+\binom{n-2}{r-1} & (x(1-z)+z(1-x))  \tag{13}\\
& \leqq\left(\binom{n-2}{r}+\binom{n-2}{r-1}\right)\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right) \\
& =\binom{n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
\end{align*}
$$

For equality in (13), we need $y+z=1$, and $d^{r}(A[\alpha])=z$ for all $\alpha \in Q_{r, n}$ such that $1 \notin \alpha$. Thus $A[3, \ldots, n]$ is the identity unless $r=n-1$, and hence $A$ is in class (c) of Theorem 2.

If $B_{1}$ is $1 \times 1$ with entry $x, 0<x<1, x$ may not be on the main diagonal of $A$. We may assume that $x=a_{11}$ or $a_{12}$. Suppose that $x=a_{11}$ and that $\operatorname{per}(A) \neq 0$. Then $\operatorname{per}(A)=x$ and $A[2, \ldots, n] \in \Omega$. It is now easy to verify, using Lemma 5 , that $A$ is in class (b) of Theorem 2. If $\operatorname{per}(A)=0$, then $A[2, \ldots, n] \notin \Omega$, so assume that the last column of $A[2, \ldots n]$ is zero. The left side of (1) is at most

$$
\binom{n-2}{r}+\binom{n-2}{r-1} x<\binom{n-1}{r}=\binom{n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
$$

Now assume that $x=a_{12}$. Then $A$ has the form

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{cc|c}
a_{11} & x & a_{13} \ldots \ldots a_{1 n} \\
a_{21} & 0 & a_{23} \ldots \ldots a_{2 n} \\
\hline & 0 & \\
\cdot & \\
\cdot & \\
\cdot & C \\
& 0 &
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $C$ is a $(0,1)$ matrix.
Suppose that $\operatorname{per}(A)=x$. Then the left side of (1) is at most

$$
\binom{n-2}{r}(1-x)+\binom{n-2}{r-1}\left(\max _{j \neq 2} a_{1_{j}}\right) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
$$

For equality to hold it is necessary that $\max _{j \neq 2} a_{1 j}=1-x$. If $a_{11}=1-x$, we must have $C \in \Omega$. Thus, $a_{21}=1$ and $A$ is in class (c), so we may assume that $a_{13}=1-x$. Then

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{lll|c}
0 & x & 1-x & 0 \ldots \ldots 0  \tag{14}\\
a_{21} & 0 & a_{23} & \\
a_{31} & 0 & a_{23} & \\
\hline & & C
\end{array}\right]
$$

where $C$ is $(0,1)$. Look at the possibilities for $\{1,2,3\} \cap \alpha$. The left side of (1) is at most

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \binom{n-3}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)+\binom{n-3}{r-1}\left(a_{33}(1-x)\right) \\
& \\
& \quad+\binom{n-3}{r-2}\left(a_{21} x\left(1-a_{33}\right)+a_{31}(1-x)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $a_{21}=1$ and $a_{33}=0, \operatorname{per}(A)=0$, which is a contradiction. So the left side of (1) is at most

$$
\left(\binom{n-3}{r}+\binom{n-3}{r-1}+\binom{n-3}{r-2}\right)(1-x) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r}\left(1-d_{H}(A)\right)
$$

Thus, for equality in (1), we need $r=n-1, a_{31}=1, C \in \Omega$. Since $\operatorname{per}(A)=x$, $a_{23}=1$ and $A$ satisfies $(d)$. Now let $\operatorname{per}(A)=0$. Let $x=a_{12}$. If $A[3, \ldots n] \in \Omega$, $a_{21}=0$. Then the left of (1) is at most

$$
\binom{n-2}{r}+\binom{n-2}{r-1}\left(\max a_{1, j}\right)<\binom{n-1}{r} .
$$

So $A[3, \ldots, n] \notin \Omega$. Then the left of (1) is at most

$$
\binom{n-2}{r}+\binom{n-2}{r-1}\left(x+\max _{j \neq 2} a_{1 j}\right) \leqq\binom{ n-1}{r} .
$$

Since $A[3, \ldots n] \notin \Omega$, equality cannot hold unless

$$
\binom{n-2}{r}=0
$$

i.e., $\quad r=n-1$, and $\max _{j \neq 2} a_{1 j}=1-x$. If $a_{11}=1-x$, we force $A[3, \ldots n] \in \Omega$, which is a contradiction. So let $a_{13}=1-x$. Then $A$ has the form (14). We can verify that $C \in \Omega$ and $a_{21}=a_{31}=1$. Thus $A$ satisfies (d) of Theorem 2. Finally, if $A$ is a $(0,1)$ matrix and has no zero columns, $A \in \Omega$, and using Lemma 5, we complete the proof of Theorem 2.

As in the Brualdi and Newman paper [1], Theorem 3 follows from (1) and the obvious fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d^{r}(A[\alpha]) d^{s}\left(A\left[\alpha^{\prime}\right]\right) \leqq d_{H}(A) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, equality holds in (2) if and only if equality holds in (1) and (15). By Lemma 5 , if equality holds in (1), it holds when $d_{H}=$ per, so it suffices to do the problem for the pernament. Brualdi and Newman proved [1, Lemma 1] that if $\operatorname{per}(A) \neq 0$, and equality holds in (15), then $A$ is permutation isomorphic to a lower triangular matrix. Thus, if $\operatorname{per}(A) \neq 0, A$ is of the form (b) in Theorem 2.

If $\operatorname{per}(A)=0$, and $A$ has a zero column, $A$ is in (b), by Lemma 3 . The only other possibility for $\operatorname{per}(A)=0$ and equality in (1) is $r=n-1$ and

$$
A=\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c}
0 & x & 1-x & \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline & & \\
& & 0 & B
\end{array}\right]
$$

$B \in \Omega$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{\alpha \in Q r, n} \operatorname{per}(A[\alpha]) & =x\binom{n-3}{r-2}+(1-x)\binom{n-3}{r-2} \\
& =1 \\
& =\binom{n-1}{r}+\binom{n-1}{r-1} \operatorname{per}(A),
\end{aligned}
$$

and Theorem 3 is proved.

## References

1. R. A. Brualdi and M. Newman, Inequalities for the permanental minors of non-negative matrices, Can. J. Math. 18 (1966), 608-615.
2. M. Marcus and S. Pierce, On a combinatorial result of Brualdi and Newman, Can. J. Math. 20 (1968), 1056-1067.
3. M. Marcus and G. Soules, Inequalities for combinatorial matrix functions, J. Combinatorial Theory 2 (1967), 145-163.

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