# 3. Elementary Counting Problems4.1,4.2. Binomial and Multinomial Theorems2. Mathematical Induction

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# Multiplication rule

Combinatorics is a branch of Mathematics that deals with systematic methods of counting things.

#### Example

• How many outcomes (x, y, z) are possible, where

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x = \text{roll of a 6-sided die};
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y =value of a coin flip;

z = card drawn from a 52 card deck?

• (6 choices of x)  $\times$  (2 choices of y)  $\times$  (52 choices of z) = 624

## Multiplication rule

The number of sequences  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$  where there are  $n_1$  choices of  $x_1, n_2$  choices of  $x_2, \dots, n_k$  choices of  $x_k$  is  $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot \dots \cdot n_k$ .

This assumes the number of choices of  $x_i$  is a constant  $n_i$  that doesn't depend on the other choices.

## Cartesian product

The Cartesian Product of sets A and B is

$$A \times B = \{ (x, y) : x \in A, y \in B \}$$

By the Multiplication Rule, this has size  $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$ .

- Example:  $\{1,2\} \times \{3,4,5\} = \{(1,3),(1,4),(1,5),(2,3),(2,4),(2,5)\}$
- The Cartesian product of sets A, B, and C is

$$A \times B \times C = \{ (x, y, z) : x \in A, y \in B, z \in C \}$$

This has size  $|A \times B \times C| = |A| \cdot |B| \cdot |C|$ .

This extends to any number of sets.

#### Example

Roll of a 6-sided die 
$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$
  $|A| = 6$ 

Value of a coin flip 
$$B = \{H, T\}$$
  $|B| = 2$ 

Cards 
$$C = \{A\heartsuit, 2\heartsuit, \ldots\}$$
  $|C| = 52$ 

The example on the previous slide becomes

$$|A \times B \times C| = 6 \cdot 2 \cdot 52 = 624.$$

## **Notation**

- We often will need an n-element set. For  $n \ge 1$ , define  $[n] = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$  and also  $[0] = \emptyset$ .
- Again, you may have seen [x] used for *greatest integer*, but we instead use [x] for floor and [x] for ceiling.

#### **Powers**

#### Let A be a set.

- $A^k = A \times A \times \cdots \times A$  (k times)
- $\bullet |A^k| = |A|^k$

#### Example

- $[2] = \{1, 2\}$ , with size  $|[2]| = |\{1, 2\}| = 2$ .
- $[2]^3 = \{(1,1,1), (1,1,2), (1,2,1), (1,2,2), (2,1,1), (2,1,2), (2,2,1), (2,2,2)\}$
- $|[2]^3| = 2^3 = 8$

#### Example

How many *k* letter strings are there over an *n* letter alphabet?

- 3-letter strings over the alphabet  $\{a, b, \dots, z\}$ :
  - $aaa, aab, aac, \ldots, zzy, zzz$

There are  $26^3$  of them.

• In general, there are  $n^k$  strings.

#### Power set

• The *power set* of a set is the set of all of its subsets:

$$\mathcal{P}(S) = \{A : A \subseteq S\}$$

$$\mathcal{P}([3]) = \mathcal{P}(\{1, 2, 3\})$$

$$= \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$$

• Be careful on use of  $\in$  vs.  $\subset$ :

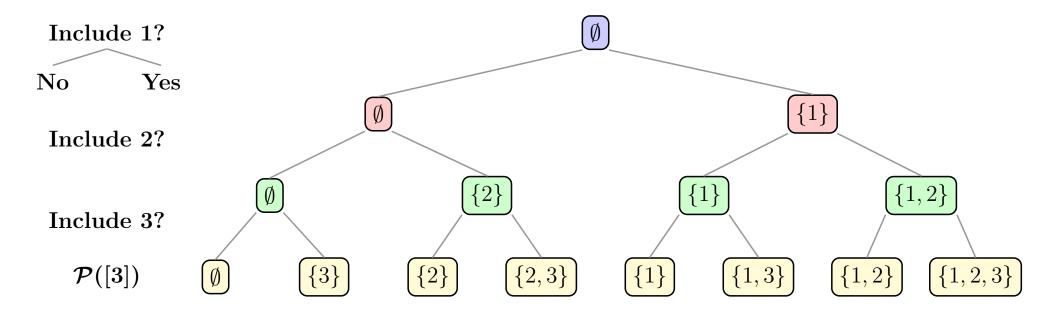
$$1 \notin \mathcal{P}([3])$$
 
$$\emptyset \in \mathcal{P}([3]) \qquad \{1\} \in \mathcal{P}([3]) \qquad \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\} \in \mathcal{P}([3])$$
 
$$\{\emptyset\} \subset \mathcal{P}([3]) \qquad \{\{1\}\} \subset \mathcal{P}([3]) \qquad \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}\} \subset \mathcal{P}([3])$$

• How big is  $|\mathcal{P}(S)|$ ? Equivalently, how many subsets does a set have?

#### First solution

- How many subsets does an n element set have?
- We'll use [n]; the solution will work for any set of size n, but it's easier to work with a specific set.
- Make a sequence of decisions:
  - Include 1 or not?
  - Include 2 or not?
  - • •
  - Include n or not?
  - Total:  $(2 \text{ choices})(2 \text{ choices}) \cdots (2 \text{ choices}) = 2^n$

First solution



#### Second solution

- Consider a subset  $S \subseteq [n]$ .
- Form the *word*  $w_1 \cdots w_n$  or a sequence  $(w_1, \dots, w_n)$

$$w_i = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } i \in S; \\ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

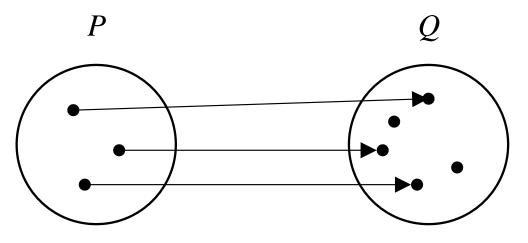
- **Example:** The subset  $S = \{1, 3, 4\}$  of [5] is encoded as a word 10110 or as a sequence (1, 0, 1, 1, 0).
- Each subset of [n] gives a unique word in  $\{0, 1\}^n$  and vice-versa.
- $|\{0,1\}^n|=2^n$ , so there are  $2^n$  words and thus  $2^n$  subsets.
- This is called a *bijective proof*.

## Function terminology

- Consider a function  $f: P \to Q$ . For element x in the set P, the function assigns a value f(x) in the set Q.
- f is one-to-one iff for all  $x, y \in P$ , when f(x) = f(y) then x = y.
  - This is also called an injection.
  - This means every element of Q either has exactly one inverse, or has no inverse.
  - If f is one-to-one then  $|P| \leq |Q|$ .
- f is onto iff for every  $z \in Q$ , there is at least one  $x \in P$  with f(x) = z.
  - This is also called a *surjection*.
  - This means every element of Q has at least one inverse.
  - If f is onto then  $|P| \geqslant |Q|$ .
- f is a *bijection* iff it is one-to-one and onto.
  - This means every element of Q has exactly one inverse.
  - If f is a bijection then |P| = |Q|.

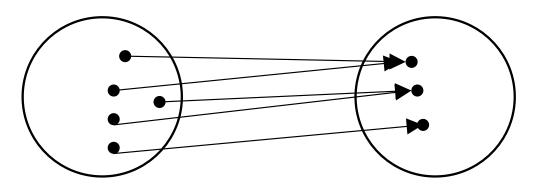
# Function terminology

# f:P o Q

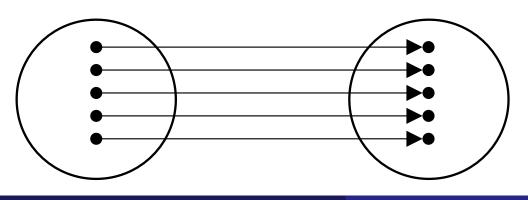


For all functions, exactly one arrow leaves each element of P.

One-to-one / Injection: At most one arrow hits each element of *Q*.



**Onto / Surjection:** At least one arrow hits each element of *Q*.



**Bijection:** Exactly one arrow hits each element of Q.

#### Second solution, continued

• Define  $f: \mathcal{P}([n]) \to \{0,1\}^n$  as follows: for  $S \subseteq [n]$ , form the word  $f(S) = w = w_1 \cdots w_n$ , where  $w_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \in S; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ 

- *f* is one-to-one:
  - Suppose f(S) = f(T) = w. We need to show this requires S = T.
  - Both S and T are subsets of [n]. For each  $i=1,\ldots,n,$  if  $w_i=1$  then  $i\in S$  and  $i\in T,$  while if  $w_i=0$  then  $i\notin S$  and  $i\notin T.$
  - Thus, S and T have the exact same elements, so S = T.
- f is onto:
  - Given  $w \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , we must construct an inverse in the domain. There may be more than one inverse; we just have to construct one.
  - $S = \{i \in [n] : w_i = 1\}$  is in the domain and satisfies f(S) = w.
- Thus, f is a bijection. So  $|\mathcal{P}([n])|$  (the number of subsets of an n-element set) equals  $|\{0,1\}^n|=2^n$ .

#### Third solution

We will use *Mathematical Induction* (Chapter 2) to prove that the number of subsets of [n] is  $2^n$ , for all integers  $n \ge 0$ :

- In general, the goal is to prove that a statement is true for all integers  $n \ge n_0$ . Often,  $n_0$  is 0 or 1, but that's not required.
- Base case: Show that the statement is true for  $n = n_0$ . Sometimes it's necessary to prove it specially for several other small values of n.
- *Induction step:* Assume that the statement holds for n. Use that to prove that it holds true for n + 1.
- *Conclusion:* the statement holds for all integers  $n \ge n_0$ .

#### Third solution

For all integers  $n \ge 0$ , the number of subsets of [n] is  $2^n$ .

#### Base case

First we show the statement is true for the smallest value of n (in this case, n = 0).

- When n = 0,  $[n] = [0] = \emptyset$  has just one subset, which is  $\emptyset$ .
- The formula gives  $2^n = 2^0 = 1$ .
- These agree, so the statement holds for the base case.

#### Third solution

#### Induction step

For some  $n \ge 0$ , assume that the number of subsets of [n] is  $2^n$ . Use that to prove the number of subsets of [n+1] is  $2^{n+1}$ 

- Split the subsets of [n+1] into  $P \cup Q$ , where
  - P is the set of subsets of [n+1] that don't have n+1, and
  - Q is the set of subsets of [n+1] that do have n+1.
- P is the set of subsets of [n]. By the induction hypothesis,  $|P| = 2^n$ .
- Insert n+1 into each set in P to form Q. Thus, |P|=|Q|. E.g., for n=2:  $P=\left\{ \begin{tabular}{ll} \emptyset, & \{1\}, & \{2\}, & \{1,2\} \end{tabular} \right.\right\}$   $Q=\left\{ \begin{tabular}{ll} \{3\}, & \{1,3\}, & \{2,3\}, & \{1,2,3\} \end{tabular} \right.\right\}$
- The total number of subsets of [n+1] is  $|P| + |Q| = 2(2^n) = 2^{n+1}$ . (This is an example of the Addition Rule, to be covered next.)

**Conclusion:** For all integers  $n \ge 0$ , the number of subsets of [n] is  $2^n$ .

#### Addition rule

- Count the number of days in a year, as follows.
- Assume it's not a leap year.
- How many pairs (m, d) are there where  $m = \text{month } 1, \dots, 12;$  d = day of the month?
- 12 choices of m, but the number of choices of d depends on m (and if it's a leap year), so the total is not " $12 \times \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ "
- Split dates into  $A_m = \{ (m, d) : d \text{ is a valid day in month } m \}$ :  $A = A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_{12} = \text{whole year}$   $|A| = |A_1| + \cdots + |A_{12}|$   $= 31 + 28 + \cdots + 31 = 365$

#### Addition rule

- Two sets *A* and *B* are *disjoint* when  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .
- The set of even integers and set of odd integers are disjoint. But the set of even integers and the set of positive prime integers are not disjoint, since their intersection is {2}.
- Multiple sets  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$  are *pairwise disjoint* (also called *mutually exclusive*) if  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  when  $i \neq j$ .
- Addition Rule: If  $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  are pairwise disjoint, then

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i \right| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_i|$$

• The left side is a generalization of  $\sum$  notation. It means:

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n| = |A_1| + |A_2| + \cdots + |A_n|$$

# Set partitions

Let S be a set. A *partition* of S is  $\{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$  where

- Each  $A_i$  is a nonempty subset of S.
- $A_1, \ldots, A_n$  are pairwise disjoint.

$$S = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i.$$

This is also called a *set partition*, to distinguish it from an *integer partition*, which we will learn about soon.

Each  $A_i$  is called a *block* or a *part*.

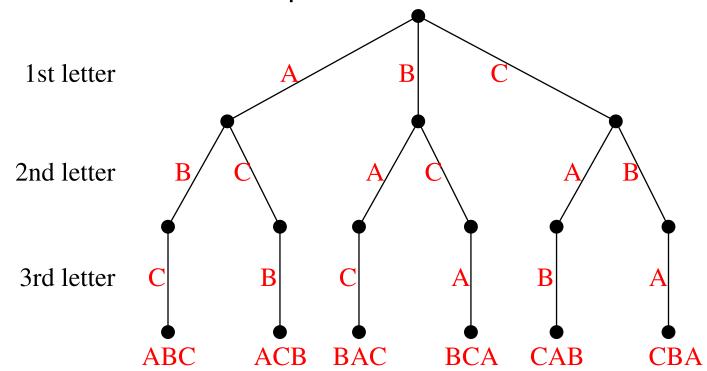
#### Examples

- We just partitioned the days of a year into 12 sets by month.
- Partition integers into even integers and odd integers.
- Partition integers into positive integers, negative integers, and {0}.

## Permutations of distinct objects

Here are all the permutations of A, B, C:

- There are 3 items: A, B, C.
- There are 3 choices for which item to put first.
- There are 2 choices remaining to put second.
- There is 1 choice remaining to put third.
- Thus, the total number of permutations is  $3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$ .



## Permutations of distinct objects

- Notice that the specific choices available at each step depend on the previous steps, but the number of choices does not, so the multiplication rule applies.
- The number of permutations of n distinct items is "n-factorial":  $n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 1$  for integers  $n = 1, 2, \ldots$

#### Convention: 0! = 1

- For integer n>1,  $n!=n\cdot (n-1)\cdot (n-2)\cdots 1$ =  $n\cdot (n-1)!$ so (n-1)!=n!/n.
- E.g., 2! = 3!/3 = 6/3 = 2.
- Extend it to 0! = 1!/1 = 1/1 = 1.
- Doesn't extend to negative integers:  $(-1)! = \frac{0!}{0} = \frac{1}{0} =$ undefined.

# Stirling's Approximation

- In how many orders can a deck of 52 cards be shuffled?
- 52! = 8065817517094387857166063685640376
   697528950544088327782400000000000
   (a 68 digit integer when computed exactly)

$$52! \approx 8.0658 \cdot 10^{67}$$

- Stirling's Approximation: For large n,  $n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$ .
- Stirling's approximation gives  $52! \approx 8.0529 \cdot 10^{67}$

# Partial permutations of distinct objects

- How many ways can you deal out 3 cards from a 52 card deck, where the order in which the cards are dealt matters? E.g., dealing the cards in order (A, 9, 9, 2, 2) is counted differently than the order (2, A, 4, 9, 9, 2).
- $52 \cdot 51 \cdot 50 = 132600$ . This is also 52!/49!.
- This is called an ordered 3-card hand, because we keep track of the order in which the cards are dealt.
- How many ordered k-card hands can be dealt from an n-card deck?

$$n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} = {}_{n}P_{k} = (n)_{k}$$

- **Notation:** Our book uses  $(n)_k$ . Many calculators use  ${}_{n}P_k$ .
- Above example is  $(52)_3 = {}_{52}P_3 = 52 \cdot 51 \cdot 50 = 132600$ .
- This is also called permutations of length k taken from n objects.

## Combinations

- In an *unordered* hand, the order in which the cards are dealt does not matter; only the set of cards matters. E.g., dealing in order  $(A\clubsuit, 9\heartsuit, 2\diamondsuit)$  or  $(2\diamondsuit, A\clubsuit, 9\heartsuit)$  both give the same hand. This is usually represented by a set:  $\{A\clubsuit, 9\heartsuit, 2\diamondsuit\}$ .
- How many 3 card hands can be dealt from a 52-card deck if the order in which the cards are dealt does not matter?

$$(A\clubsuit, 9\heartsuit, 2\diamondsuit) \qquad (9\heartsuit, A\clubsuit, 2\diamondsuit) \qquad (2\diamondsuit, 9\heartsuit, A\clubsuit)$$
$$(A\clubsuit, 2\diamondsuit, 9\heartsuit) \qquad (9\heartsuit, 2\diamondsuit, A\clubsuit) \qquad (2\diamondsuit, A\clubsuit, 9\heartsuit)$$

Every unordered 3-card hand arises from 6 different orders.
 So 52 · 51 · 50 counts each unordered hand 3! times.
 Thus, the number of unordered hands is

$$\frac{52 \cdot 51 \cdot 50}{3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1} = \frac{52!/49!}{3!} = \frac{(52)_3}{3!}$$

#### Combinations

• The # of unordered k-card hands taken from an n-card deck is

$$\frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots (n-k+1)}{k \cdot (k-1) \cdots 2 \cdot 1} = \frac{(n)_k}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!}$$

- This quantity is denoted  $\binom{n}{k}$  (or  ${}_{n}C_{k}$ , mostly on calculators).
- $\binom{n}{k}$  is the "binomial coefficient" and is pronounced "n choose k."
- The number of unordered 3-card hands is

$$\binom{52}{3}$$
 = "52 choose 3" =  $\frac{52 \cdot 51 \cdot 50}{3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}$  =  $\frac{52!}{3!49!}$  = 22100

- **General problem:** Let S be a set with n elements. The number of k-element subsets of S is  $\binom{n}{k}$ .
- Special cases:  $\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$   $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$   $\binom{n}{1} = \binom{n}{n-1} = n$

#### Binomial Theorem

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

- For n = 4:  $(x + y)^4 = (x + y)(x + y)(x + y)(x + y)$
- On expanding, each factor contributes an x or a y. After expanding, we group, simplify, and collect like terms:

$$(x + y)^{4} = yyyy + yyyx + yyxy + yxyy + xyyy + yyxx + yxxy + xyxy + xyxy + xxyy + yxxx + xyxx + xxxy + xxxx = y^{4} + 4xy^{3} + 6x^{2}y^{2} + 4x^{3}y + x^{4}$$

- Exponents of x and y must add up to n = 4.
- For the coefficient of  $x^k y^{n-k}$ , there are  $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{4}{k}$  ways to choose kfactors to contribute x's. The other n-k factors contribute y's.
- Thus,  $\binom{n}{k}$  unsimplified terms simplify to  $x^k y^{n-k}$ , giving  $\binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$ .

# Permutations with repetitions

#### Here are all the permutations of the letters of ALLELE:

```
EEALLL
        EELALL
                 EELLAL
                          EELLLA
                                  EAELLL
                                           EALELL
EALLEL
        EALLLE
                 ELEALL
                          ELELAL
                                  ELELLA
                                           ELAELL
        ELALLE
                 ELLEAL
                          ELLELA
                                           ELLALE
ELALEL
                                  ELLAEL
ELLLEA
        ELLLAE
                 AEELLL
                         AELELL
                                  AELLEL
                                           AELLLE
ALEELL
        ALELEL
                 ALELLE
                         ALLEEL
                                  ALLELE
                                           ALLLEE
        LEELAL
                 LEELLA
                          LEAELL
                                  LEALEL
                                           LEALLE
LEEALL
LELEAL
        LELELA
                 LELAEL
                         LELALE
                                  LELLEA
                                           LELLAE
LAEELL
        LAELEL
                 LAELLE
                          LALEEL
                                  LALELE
                                           LALLEE
        LLEELA
                 LLEAEL
                                  LLELEA
                                           LLELAE
LLEEAL
                          LLEALE
LLAEEL
        LLAFLE
                 LLALEE
                          LLLEFA
                                  LLLEAE
                                           LLLAEE
```

# Permutations with repetitions

- There are 6! = 720 ways to permute the subscripted letters  $A_1, L_1, L_2, E_1, L_3, E_2$ .
- Here are all the ways to put subscripts on EALLEL:

$$E_{1}A_{1}L_{1}L_{2}E_{2}L_{3} E_{1}A_{1}L_{1}L_{3}E_{2}L_{2} E_{2}A_{1}L_{1}L_{2}E_{1}L_{3} E_{2}A_{1}L_{1}L_{3}E_{1}L_{2}$$

$$E_{1}A_{1}L_{2}L_{1}E_{2}L_{3} E_{1}A_{1}L_{2}L_{3}E_{2}L_{1} E_{2}A_{1}L_{2}L_{1}E_{1}L_{3} E_{2}A_{1}L_{2}L_{3}E_{1}L_{1}$$

$$E_{1}A_{1}L_{3}L_{1}E_{2}L_{2} E_{1}A_{1}L_{3}L_{2}E_{2}L_{1} E_{2}A_{1}L_{3}L_{1}E_{1}L_{2} E_{2}A_{1}L_{3}L_{2}E_{1}L_{1}$$

- Each rearrangement of ALLELE has
  - 1! = 1 way to subscript the A's;
  - 2! = 2 ways to subscript the E's; and
  - 3! = 6 ways to subscript the L's,
  - giving  $1! \cdot 2! \cdot 3! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 6 = 12$  ways to assign subscripts.
- Since each permutation of ALLELE is represented 12 different ways in permutations of  $A_1L_1L_2E_1L_3E_2$ , the number of permutations of ALLELE is

$$\frac{6!}{1!2!3!} = \frac{720}{12} = 60.$$

## Multinomial coefficients

• For a word of length n with  $k_1$  of one letter,  $k_2$  of a second letter, etc., the number of permutations is given by the multinomial coefficient:

$$\binom{n}{k_1, k_2, \dots, k_r} = \frac{n!}{k_1! \, k_2! \, \cdots \, k_r!}$$

where  $n, k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_r$  are integers  $\geq 0$  and  $n = k_1 + \cdots + k_r$ .

• Read  $\binom{6}{1,2,3}$  as "6 choose 1, 2, 3."

# Permutations with repetitions — Second method

Make a template with n blanks:

• Choose  $k_1$  of the n positions to fill in with the 1<sup>st</sup> letter:

 $oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}} oxed{\mathsf{L}}$  ways

• Choose  $k_2$  of the remaining  $n - k_1$  positions for the 2<sup>nd</sup> letter.

• Choose  $k_3$  of the remaining  $n - k_1 - k_2$  positions for the 3<sup>rd</sup> letter.

Continue in the same way for all letters. Total:

$$\binom{n}{k_1} \binom{n-k_1}{k_2} \binom{n-k_1-k_2}{k_3} \cdots = \frac{n!}{k_1! (n-k_1)!} \cdot \frac{(n-k_1)!}{k_2! (n-k_1-k_2)!} \cdot \frac{(n-k_1-k_2)!}{k_3! (n-k_1-k_2-k_3)!} \cdots$$

$$= \frac{n!}{k_1! k_2! \cdots k_r! (n-k_1-k_2-\cdots-k_r)!} = \frac{n!}{k_1! k_2! \cdots k_r!}$$

Since  $k_1 + \cdots + k_r = n$ , the factor  $(n - k_1 - k_2 - \cdots - k_r)! = 0! = 1$ .

## Multinomial Theorem

• Expand and simplify  $(x + y + z)^4$ :

$$(x+y+z)^4 = (x+y+z) (x+y+z) (x+y+z) (x+y+z)$$

$$= x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x$$

$$+ x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot y$$

$$+ x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot z$$

$$+ \cdots$$

- Each line simplifies to  $x^i y^j z^k$  with exponents i, j, k that are nonnegative integers adding up to 4. After collecting like terms, we get a coefficient times this.
- The coefficient of  $x^2yz$  is the number of lines that simplify to  $x^2yz$ .
  - It's the number of rearrangements of xxyz (variables contributed by the 4 factors), which is  $\binom{4}{2,1,1} = \frac{4!}{2! \cdot 1! \cdot 1!} = 12$ .
  - Equivalently, split the 4 factors as follows: choose 2 to contribute x's; 1 to contribute y; and 1 to contribute z. This can be done in  $\binom{4}{2.1.1} = 12$  ways.

## **Multinomial Theorem**

• Binomial theorem: For integers  $n \ge 0$ ,

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$
$$(x+y)^3 = \binom{3}{0} x^0 y^3 + \binom{3}{1} x^1 y^2 + \binom{3}{2} x^2 y^1 + \binom{3}{3} x^3 y^0 = y^3 + 3xy^2 + 3x^2 y + x^3$$

• Multinomial theorem: For integers  $n \ge 0$ ,

$$(x+y+z)^{n} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i,j,k} x^{i} y^{j} z^{k}$$

$$i+j+k=n$$

$$(x+y+z)^{2} = {\binom{2}{2,0,0}} x^{2} y^{0} z^{0} + {\binom{2}{0,2,0}} x^{0} y^{2} z^{0} + {\binom{2}{0,0,2}} x^{0} y^{0} z^{2}$$

$$+ {\binom{2}{1,1,0}} x^{1} y^{1} z^{0} + {\binom{2}{1,0,1}} x^{1} y^{0} z^{1} + {\binom{2}{0,1,1}} x^{0} y^{1} z^{1}$$

$$= x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2} + 2xy + 2xz + 2yz$$

 $(x_1 + \cdots + x_m)^n$  works similarly with m iterated sums.

• In  $(x+y+z)^{10}$ , the coefficient of  $x^2y^3z^5$  is  $\binom{10}{2,3,5} = \frac{10!}{2!3!5!} = 2520$ .

## Multisets

 A set is an unordered collection of different objects. Each object is either in the set or not in the set. For example,

$$\{1,5,10\} = \{1,10,5\}$$
 Order irrelevant  
=  $\{1,10,5,1\}$  Repetitions collapse into one element

- A list, sequence, or tuple allows repeats, and is ordered.
  - (1, 5, 10), (5, 1, 10), (5, 1, 5, 10) are different lists.
- A multiset allows repeated objects, but still is not ordered.
  - Multiset  $\{x, y, z, z, y\}$  has one x, two y's, two z's.
  - As a multiset,  $\{x, y, z, z, y\} = \{x, y, y, z, z\}$  (order irrelevant) but  $\neq \{x, x, y, z\}$  (wrong multiplicities).
  - You need to say it's a multiset, since the notation looks the same.
  - This is informal notation for small multisets. It's better to give a function/table listing multiplicities.

Element	Multiplicity
$\mathcal{X}$	1
y	2
$\mathcal{Z}$	2

# Compositions of an integer

- Let *n* be a nonnegative integer.
- A *strict composition* of n into k parts is  $(i_1, \ldots, i_k)$  where  $i_1, \ldots, i_k$  are positive integers that add up to n.
  - The strict compositions of 4 into 3 parts are

- A weak composition uses nonnegative integers instead.
  - The weak compositions of 4 into 3 parts are

$$(4,0,0), (3,1,0), (3,0,1), (2,2,0), (2,1,1), (2,0,2), (1,3,0), (1,2,1), (1,1,2), (1,0,3), (0,4,0), (0,3,1), (0,2,2), (0,1,3), (0,0,4)$$

- In the Multinomial Theorem, the exponents form a weak composition.
- The terms of  $(x + y + z)^4 = x^4 + 4x^3y + 4x^3z + 6x^2y^2 + \cdots$  correspond to the weak compositions listed above.

# Dots and bars diagram of a weak composition

• The *dots and bars diagram* of a composition  $(i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k)$  of n:

$$(5,2,3) = \cdots | \cdots | \cdots |$$
  
 $(3,0,3,1,0) = \cdots | | \cdots | \cdots |$ 

- There are n dots and k-1 bars. This is n+k-1 characters.
- For weak compositions, the dots and bars may go in any order.
- There are  $\binom{n+k-1}{k-1} = \binom{n+k-1}{n}$  orders.
- Thus, the number of weak compositions of n into k parts is  $\binom{n+k-1}{k-1}$ .
  - The # of weak compositions of 4 into 3 parts is  $\binom{4+3-1}{3-1} = \binom{6}{2} = 15$ .
- In the Multinomial Theorem,  $(x_1 + \cdots + x_m)^{\ell}$  has  $\binom{\ell+m-1}{m-1}$  terms.
- The # of  $\ell$ -element multisets formed from a set of size m is  $\binom{\ell+m-1}{m-1}$ . E.g., the 3-element multisets over the set  $\{1,2\}$  are  $\{1,1,1\},\{1,1,2\},\{1,2,2\},\{2,2,2\}$ . Total:  $\binom{3+2-1}{2-1}=\binom{4}{1}=4$ .

# Dots and bars diagram of a strict composition

For strict compositions, the parts have size at least 1.

• There are n-1 spaces between the n dots; these are the possible places to place bars in order to ensure that all parts have size  $\geq 1$ :

- Choose k-1 of these spaces for the bars, in one of  $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$  ways.
- Thus, there are  $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$  strict compositions of n into k parts.
- There are  $\binom{4-1}{3-1} = \binom{3}{2} = 3$  strict compositions of 4 into 3 parts.

# 2.2. Strong induction

#### **Theorem**

Every integer  $n \ge 2$  may be written as a product of primes,  $n = p_1 \dots p_k$ .

- This is more complicated than going from n to n+1; we need to use multiple prior values.
- We will use Strong Mathematical Induction:
  - To prove a statement holds for all integers  $n \ge n_0$ :
  - *Base case:* Prove it holds for  $n = n_0$ .
  - *Induction step:* For  $n > n_0$ , assume it holds for all values  $n_0, n_0 + 1, \dots, n 1$  and use that to prove it holds for n.

# Strong induction

#### **Theorem**

Every integer  $n \ge 2$  may be written as a product of primes,  $n = p_1 \dots p_k$ .

#### Base case: n=2

• 2 is a product of primes with just one factor,  $n = p_1 = 2$ .

#### Induction step:

- Let  $n \geqslant 3$ .
- Assume 2, 3, ..., n-1 may each be written as a product of primes. Use that to prove n may also be written as a product of primes.
- If *n* is prime, then it is a product of one prime factor (itself,  $p_1 = n$ ).
- Otherwise, n = ab where 1 < a, b < n.
- By the induction hypothesis,  $a = p_1 \cdots p_k$  and  $b = q_1 \cdots q_\ell$  are products of primes.
- Then  $n = p_1 \cdots p_k q_1 \cdots q_\ell$  is a product of primes.

#### Generalization

In Number Theory, there is a stronger result:

## Theorem (The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Every integer  $n \geqslant 1$  has a unique factorization into primes, in the format

$$n=p_1^{a_1}\cdots p_k^{a_k}$$

where  $p_1 < p_2 < \cdots < p_k$  are primes and  $a_i$  are positive integers.

- This collects the prime factors (easy) and proves uniqueness (which is beyond the scope of our proof).
- Note that  $\pm 1$  are *units* (divisors of 1), not primes, since that would violate uniqueness  $(10 = 2 \cdot 5 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 = (-1)^2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5$ , etc.).