Discrete Mathematics Lecture 9

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Summary of Lecture 8

Order of a group *G*: the number of elements in *G*

Order of an element $a \in G$: the least l > 0 such that $a^l = 1$

- $a^{|G|} = 1$ for all $a \in G$
 - Euler's theorem, Fermat's little theorem

Subgroup: $H \subseteq G + (H, \star)$ is also a group $(H \leq G)$

- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is a subgroup of G for all $g \in G$
- Cyclic group: $G = \langle g \rangle$ for some $g \in G$

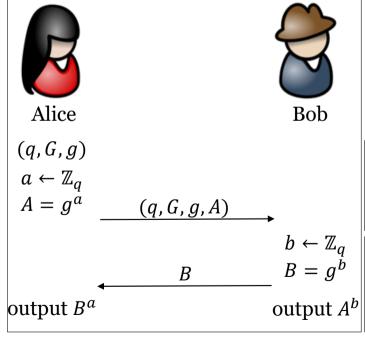
Discrete Logarithm: $G = \langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, ..., g^{q-1}\}$

- $\forall h \in G, \exists x \in \{0,1,...,q-1\} \text{ such that } h = g^x$
- Denote $x = \log_g h$
- DLOG problem: $(q, G, g, h) \rightarrow x$
- CDH problem: $(q, G, g, g^a, g^b) \rightarrow g^{ab}$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

The Scheme: $G = \langle g \rangle$ is a cyclic group of prime order q

- Alice: $a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, $A = g^a$; send (q, G, g, A) to Bob
- Bob: $b \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$, $B = g^b$; send B to Alice; output $k = A^b$
- Alice: output $k = B^a$







Whitfield Diffie, Martin E. Hellman: New directions in Cryptography, IEEE Trans. Info. Theory, 1976 **Turing Award 2015**

Correctness: $A^b = g^{ab} = B^a$ **Wiretapper:** view = (q, G, g, A, B)

Security: view $\Rightarrow g^{ab}$

Combinatorics

Enumerative combinatorics

• permutations, combinations, partitions of integers, generating functions, combinatorial identities, inequalities

Designs and configurations

 block designs, triple systems, Latin squares, orthogonal arrays, configurations, packing, covering, tiling

Graph theory

• graphs, trees, planarity, coloring, paths, cycles,

Extremal combinatorics

extremal set theory, probabilistic method......

Algebraic combinatorics

• symmetric functions, group, algebra, representation, group actions......

Sets and Functions

DEFINITION: A **set** is an unordered collection of **elements**

• $a \in A$; $a \notin A$); roster method, set builder; empty set \emptyset , universal set

2/m-faGA,12...

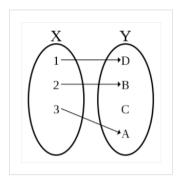
• A = B; $A \subseteq B$; $A \subset B$; $A \cup B$; $A \cap B$; $A \cap B$

DEFINITION: Let $A, B \neq \emptyset$ be two sets. A function (map)

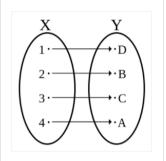
 $f: A \to B$ assigns a unique element $b \in B$ for all $a \in A$.

- injective $\neq h$: $f(a) = f(b) \Rightarrow a = b$
- surjective_{##}: f(A) = B
- bijective_{xh}: injective and surjective

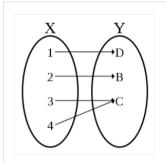
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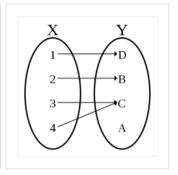
An injective non-surjective function (injection, not a bijection)



An injective surjective function (bijection)



A non-injective surjective function (surjection, not a bijection)



A non-injective non-surjective function (also not a bijection)

Cardinality of Sets

- **DEFINITION:** Let A be a set. A is a **finite set** if it has **finitely** many elements; Otherwise, A is an **infinite set**.
 - The **cardinality** A = A of a finite set A is the A is the A.
- **EXAMPLE:** \emptyset , {1}, { $x: x^2 2x 3 = 0$ }, {a, b, c, ..., z} are all finite sets; \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} are all infinite sets
- **DEFINITION:** Let A, B be any sets. We say that A, B have the **same cardinality** (|A| = |B|) if there is a bijection $f: A \to B$
 - We say that $|A| \le |B|$ if there exists an injection $f: A \to B$.
 - If $|A| \leq |B|$ and $|A| \neq |B|$, we say that |A| < |B|
- **THEOREM**: Let *A*, *B*, *C* be any sets. Then
 - |A| = |A|
 - |A| = |A|• $|A| = |B| \Rightarrow |B| = |A|$ 2 f(a) = f(b)
 - $|A| = |B| |B| = |C| \Rightarrow |A| = |C|$

Cardinality of Sets

EXAMPLE:
$$|\mathbb{Z}^+| = |\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}^+| = |\mathbb{Q}| \quad \frac{1}{1} \longrightarrow \frac{2}{1}$$

•
$$f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{N}$$
 $x \mapsto x - 1$
• $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N}$ $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x & x \ge 0 \\ -(2x + 1) & x < 0 \end{cases}$
EXAMPLE: $|\mathbb{R}^+| - |\mathbb{R}| - |(0, 1)| - |[0, 1]|$

EXAMPLE:
$$|\mathbb{R}^{+}| = |\mathbb{R}| = |(0,1)| = |[0,1]|$$

• $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^{+} \ x \mapsto 2^{x}$
• $f: (0,1) \to \mathbb{R} \ x \mapsto \tan(\pi(x-1/2))$

•
$$f: (0,1) \to \mathbb{R} \ x \mapsto \tan(\pi(x-1/2))$$
 • $f: [0,1] \to (0,1)$

•
$$f(1) = 2^{-1}$$
, $f(0) = 2^{-2}$, $f(2^{-n}) = 2^{-n-2}$, $n = 1,2,3,...$
• $f(x) = x$ for all other x

EXAMPLE:
$$|2^X| = |\mathcal{P}(X)|$$

P: Power set =

•
$$2^X = \{ \alpha \mid \alpha \colon X \to \{0,1\} \}$$
 the set of all functions from X to $\{0,1\}$

 $f\colon \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{Q}^+$

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Cardinality of Sets

THEOREM: $|(0,1)| \neq |\mathbb{Z}^+|$

Suppose that $|(0,1)| = |\mathbb{Z}^+|$. Then there is a bijection $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to (0,1)$

```
f(1) = 0.b_{11}b_{12}b_{13}b_{14}b_{15}b_{16}b_{17}b_{18}b_{19} \cdots
f(2) = 0.b_{21}b_{22}b_{23}b_{24}b_{25}b_{26}b_{27}b_{28}b_{29} \cdots
                                          f(3) = 0.b_{31}b_{32}b_{32}b_{34}b_{35}b_{36}b_{37}b_{38}b_{39}\cdots
                                          f(4) = 0.b_{41}b_{42}b_{43}b_{44}b_{45}b_{46}b_{47}b_{48}b_{49}\cdots
                                          f(5) = 0.b_{51}b_{52}b_{53}b_{54}b_{55}b_{56}b_{57}b_{58}b_{59}\cdots
                                          f(6) = 0.b_{61}b_{62}b_{63}b_{64}b_{65}b_{66}b_{67}b_{68}b_{69}\cdots
                                          f(n) = 0.b_{n1}b_{n2}b_{n3}b_{n4}b_{n5}b_{n6}b_{n7}b_{n8}b_{n9}\cdots
                  保证bit bii
• Let b_i = \begin{cases} 4, & b_{ii} \neq 4 \\ 5, & b_{ii} = 4 \end{cases} for i = 1, 2, 3, ...
```

- $b = 0. b_1 b_2 b_3 b_4 b_5 b_6 b_7 b_8 b_9 \cdots$ is in (0,1) but has no preimage
 - $b \neq f(i)$ for every i = 1, 2, ...
- f cannot be a bijection

Cantor's Diagonal Argument

Question: Show that $|A| \neq |\mathbb{Z}^+|$.

The Diagonal Argument:

- 1) Suppose that $|A| = |\mathbb{Z}^+|$. Then there is a bijection $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \overline{A}$
- 2) Represent the function *f* as a list:

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- 3) Construct an element x by considering the diagonal of the list
- 4) Show that $x \neq a_{ii}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- 5) Show that $x \in A$
- 6) 4) and 5) give a contradiction

Cantor's Theorem

THEOREM: (Cantor) Let A be any set. Then
$$|A| < |\mathcal{P}(A)|$$
.

- fa)=f(6) 9=b.") $|A| \leq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$
 - The function $f: A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$ defined by $f(a) = \{a\}$ is injective.
 - $|A| \neq |\mathcal{P}(A)|$ Assume that there is a bijection $g: A \to \mathcal{P}(A)$

 - Define $X = \{a : a \in A \text{ and } a \notin g(a)\}$ 'All the" X should appear in the list. It is clear that $X \subseteq A$ and hence $X \in \mathcal{P}(A)$
 - X will not appear in the list. Suppose that X = g(x) for some $x \in A$
 - If $x \in X$, then $x \notin g(x) = X$
 - This gives a contradiction
 - If $x \notin X$, then $x \in g(x) = X$ This gives a contradiction
 - $a' \in X$ $a' \notin \{g(a')\} = X$ $a' \notin X$ $a \in g(x) = X$

(a'e')

The Halting Problem

$$\mathbf{HALT}(P,I) = \begin{cases} \text{"halts"} & \text{if } P(I) \text{ halts;} \\ \text{"loops forever"} & \text{if } P(I) \text{ loops forever.} \end{cases}$$

• *P*: a program; *I*: an input to the program *P*.

QUESTION: Is there a Turing machine **HALT**?

- Turing machine: can be represented as a an element of {0,1}*
 - $\{0,1\}^* = \bigcup_{n>0} \{0,1\}^n$: the set of all finite bit strings

THEOREM: There is no Turing machine HALT.

- Assume there is a Turing machine **HALT**Define a new Turing machine **Turing**(*P*) that runs on any Turing machine *P*
- - **If** HALT(P, P) = "halts", loops forever
 - **If** HALT(P, P) = "loops forever", halts
- Turing(Turing) loops forever⇒ HALT(Turing, Turing) = "halts"⇒**Turing(Turing) halts**
- **Turing(Turing)** halts \Rightarrow **HALT(Turing, Turing)** = "loops forever"⇒**Turing(Turing)** loops forever

Proof concept [edit]

Christopher Strachey outlined a proof by contradiction that the halting problem is not solvable. [26][27] The proof proceeds as follows: Suppose that there exists a total computable function halts(f) that returns true if the subroutine f halts (when run with no inputs) and returns false otherwise. Now consider the following subroutine:

```
def g():
    if halts(g):
       loop_forever()
```

halts(g) must either return true or false, because halts was assumed to be total. If halts(g) returns true, then g will call loop_forever and never halt, which is a contradiction. If halts(g) returns false, then g will halt, because it will not call loop_forever this is also a contradiction. Overall, g does the appeaits of what halts save g should do so halts(g) can For example, in pseudocode, the program

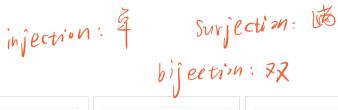
```
while (true) continue
```

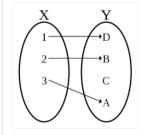
does not halt; rather, it goes on forever in an infinite loop. On the other hand, the program

```
print "Hello, world!"
```

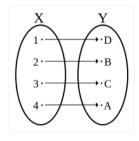
does halt.

While deciding whether these programs halt is simple, more complex programs prove problematic. One approach to the problem might be to run the program for some number of steps and check if it halts. But if the program does not halt, it is unknown whether the program will eventually halt or run forever. Turing proved no algorithm exists that always correctly decides whether, for a given arbitrary program and input, the program halts when run with that input. The essence of Turing's proof is that any such algorithm can be made to contradict itself and therefore cannot be correct.

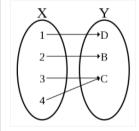




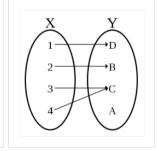
An injective non-surjective function (injection, not a bijection)



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Countable and Uncountable

DEFINITION: A set *A* is **countable**_°, ¬η if |A| < ∞ or $|A| = |\mathbb{Z}^+|$; otherwise, it is said to be **uncountable**_{¬¬∞}, ¬¬¬∞.

• countably infinite: $|A| = |\mathbb{Z}^+|$

EXAMPLE:

- $\mathbb{Z}^-, \mathbb{Z}^+, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}^-, \mathbb{Q}^+, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, are countable
- \mathbb{R}^- , \mathbb{R}^+ , \mathbb{R} , (0,1), [0,1], (0,1], [0,1), (a,b), [a,b] are uncountable

THEOREM: A set A is countably infinite iff its elements can be

arranged as a sequence $a_1, a_2, ...$

- If A is countably infinite, then there is a bijection $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to A$
- If $A = \{a_1, a_2, ...\}$, then the $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to A$ defined by $f(i) = a_i$ is a bijection
 - $a_i = f(i)$ for every i = 1,2,3...

Countable and Uncountable

THEOREM: Let *A* be countably infinite, then any infinite subset $X \subseteq A$ is countable.

- Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, ...\}$. Then $X = \{a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, ...\}$ X is countable
- **THEOREM:** Let A be uncountable, then any set $X \supseteq A$ is uncountable.
 - If *X* is countable, then *A* is finite or countably infinite

THEOREM: If *A*, *B* are countably infinite, then so is $A \cup B$

- $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots\}, B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots\}$
- $A \cup B = \{a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2, a_3, b_3, ...\}$ //no elements will be included twice
 - application: the set of irrational numbers is uncountable

THEOREM: If A, B are countably infinite, then so is $A \times B$

- $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, ...\}, B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3, ...\}$
- $A \times B = \{(a_1, b_1), (a_1, b_2), (a_2, b_1), (a_1, b_3), (a_2, b_2), (a_3, b_1), (a_1, b_4), \dots\}$

Schröder-Bernstein Theorem

QUESTION: How to compare the cardinality of sets in general?

- $|\mathbb{Z}^-| = |\mathbb{Z}^+| = |\mathbb{Z}| = |\mathbb{Q}^-| = |\mathbb{Q}^+| = |\mathbb{Q}| = |\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}|$
- $|\mathbb{R}^-| = |\mathbb{R}^+| = |\mathbb{R}| = |(0,1)| = |[0,1]| = |(0,1)| = |[0,1)|$
- $|\mathbb{Z}^+| \neq |(0,1)|$: hence, $|\mathbb{Z}^+| \neq |\mathbb{R}|$, and in fact $|\mathbb{Z}^+| < |\mathbb{R}|$
- $|\mathbb{Z}^+| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^+)|$
- $|\mathbb{R}|$? $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^+)|$: which set has more elements?

THEOREM: If $|A| \le |B|$ and $|B| \le |A|$, then |A| = |B|.

EXAMPLE: Show that |(0,1)| = |[0,1)|

- |(0,1)| ≤ |[0,1)|
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- $|[0,1)| \le |(0,1)|$
- $f: (0,1) \to [0,1) \ x \to \frac{x}{2} \text{ is injective}$ $g: [0,1) | \leq |(0,1)|$ $g: [0,1) \to (0,1) \ x \to \frac{x}{4} + \frac{1}{2} \text{ is injective}$

Schröder-Bernstein Theorem

EXAMPLE:
$$|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^{+})| = |[0,1)| = (|\mathbb{R}|)$$

• $|\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^{+})| \leq |[0,1)|$ $\chi \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}$ • $f: \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^{+}) \to [0,1)$ $\{a_{1}, a_{2}, ...\} \mapsto 0... \cdot 1_{a_{1}} \cdots 1_{a_{2}} \cdots$ is an injection.
• $|[0,1)| \leq |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^{+})|$
• $\forall x \in [0,1), x = 0.r_{1}r_{2} \cdots (r_{1}, r_{2}, \cdots \in \{0, ..., 9\}, \text{no } \dot{9})$

- $0 \leftrightarrow 0000, 1 \leftrightarrow 0001, \dots, 9 \leftrightarrow 1001$ x has a binary representation $x = 0. b_1 b_2 \cdots$ $f: [0,1) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^+) \ x \mapsto \{i: i \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \land b_i = 1\}$ is an injection
- **THEOREM:** $|\mathbb{Z}^+| < |\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}^+)| = |[0,1)| = |(0,1)| = |\mathbb{R}|$ \aleph_0 $2^{\aleph_0} = C$

The continuum hypothesis Edition : There is no cardinal number between \aleph_0 and c, i.e., there is no set A such that $\aleph_0 < |A| < c$.

不存在基础"最大"的集会,国效的原式之行及基础

Basic Rules of Counting

odd veven=Z, odd n even=p

DEFINITION: Let *A* be a finite set. A **partition** A = A = A = A of set *A* is a family A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k of nonempty subsets of *A* such that

- $\bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i = A$ and 24 = 54
- $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ for all $i, j \in [k]$ with $i \neq j$.

The Sum Rule_{mkgm}: Let A be a finite set. Let $\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_k\}$ be a partition of A. Then $|A| \neq |A_1| + |A_2| + \cdots + |A_k|$.

• Suppose that a task can be done in one of n_1 ways, in one of n_2 ways, . . . , or in one of n_k ways, where none of the set of n_i ways of doing the task is the same as any of the set of n_j ways, for all pairs i and j with $1 \le i < j \le k$. Then the number of ways to do the task is $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k$.

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Basic Rules of Counting

The Product Rule Rule Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_k$ be finite sets. Then $|A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_k| = |A_1| \times |A_2| \times \cdots \times |A_k|$. (*)

• Suppose that a procedure is carried out by performing the tasks $T_1, T_2, ..., T_k$ in sequence. If each task T_i (i = 1, 2, ..., k) can be done in n_i ways, regardless of how the previous tasks were done, then there are $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$ ways to carry out the procedure.

EXAMPLE: # of composite divisors of $N = 2^{100} \times 3^{200} \times 5^{1000}$.

- $A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+: n \mid N\}; |A| = 101 \times 201 \times 1001 / \text{product rule } n = 2^a 3^b 5^c$
- $A_1 = \{n \in A : n \text{ is prime}\}; A_2 = \{n \in A : n \text{ is composite}\}; A_3 = \{1\}$
 - $\{A_1, A_2, A_3\}$ is a partition of A.
 - $|A| = |A_1| + |A_2| + |A_3| \Rightarrow |A_2| = |A| |A_1| |A_3|$
- $|A_1|=3, |A_3|=1; |A_2|=101\times 201\times 1001-3-1=20321297.$ The Bijection Rule—A A A be two finite sets. If

The Bijection Rule— $_{\text{маяру}}$, $_{\text{неяву}}$: Let A and B be two finite sets. If there is a bijection $f: A \to B$, then |A| = |B|.

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Basic Rules of Counting

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EXAMPLE: Find # of all/composite divisors of $N = 2^{100} \times 3^{200}$.

- $A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+: n \mid N\}$: the # of all divisors of N is |A|
 - n|N must have the form $n=2^a3^b$, $0 \le a \le 100$, $0 \le b \le 200$
- |A| = # of ways of constructing an integer of the form $2^a 3^b$ $D_1 = \{2^0, 2^1, ..., 2^{100}\}; D_2 = \{3^0, 3^1, ..., 3^{200}\}$

- $|A| = |D_1 \times D_2| = |D_1| \times |D_2| = 101 \times 201$ $A_1 = \{n \in A : n \text{ is prime}\}; A_2 = \{n \in A : n \text{ is composite}\}; A_3 = \{1\}$
 - # of composite divisors of N is $|A_2|$
 - - $\{A_1, A_2, A_3\}$ is a partition of A.
 - $|A| = |A_1| + |A_2| + |A_3|$
 - $|A_2| = |A| |A_1| |A_3|$
 - $|A_1| = 2, |A_3| = 1$
 - $|A_2| = 101 \times 201 2 1 = 20298$

Permutations of Set

DEFINITION: Let $A = \{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ and $r \in [n]$. An r-permutation of A is a sequence of r distinct elements of A. $a \not \rightarrow \mathbb{R} r + \mathbb{R}^3$

- An *n*-permutation of *A* is simply called a permutation of *A*. \Box The 2-permutations of $A = \{1,2,3\}$ are 1,2; 1,3; 2,1; 2,3; 3,1; 3,2
- **THEOREM**: An *n*-element set has P(n,r) = n!/(n-r)! Different

r-permutations. 7 $= \{a_1, ..., a_n\}$ and $r \in [n]$. An r-permutation of A with repetition is a sequence of r elements of A.

- The 2-permutations of $A = \{1,2,3\}$ with repetition are
 - 1,1; 1,2; 1,3; 2,1; 2,2; 2,3; 3,1; 3,2; 3,3

THEOREM: An *n*-element set has n^r different *r*-permutations with repetition.

 $P(h,r) = \eta'$ repetition

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Multiset

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DEFINITION: A **multiset** is a collection of elements which

- An element $x \in A$ has **multiplicity** m if it appears m times in A.
- A multiset A is called an n-multiset if it has n elements.
- - $A = \{n_1 \cdot a_1, n_2 \cdot a_2, \dots, n_k \cdot a_k\}$: an $(n_1^{n_1} + n_2 + \dots + n_k)$ -multiset
 - a_i has multiplicity n_i for all $i \in [n]$. • $T = \{t_1 \cdot a_1, t_2 \cdot a_2, \dots, t_k \cdot a_k\}$ is called an **r-subset** of A if
- 0 ≤ t_i ≤ n_i for every i ∈ [k], and
 t₁ + t₂ + ··· + t_k = r
- **EXAMPLE:** $A = \{1 \cdot a, 2 \cdot b, 3 \cdot c, 100 \cdot z\}, T = \{1 \cdot b, 98 \cdot z\}$
 - - A is a 106-multiset; the multiplicities of a, b, c, z are 1,2,3,100, resp.
- T is a 99-subset of A

Permutations of Multiset

DEFINITION: Let $A = \{n_1 \cdot a_1, ..., n_k \cdot a_k\}$ be an *n*-multiset. A **permutation** of A is a sequence x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of n elements, where a_i appears exactly n_i times for every $i \in [k]$.

- r-permutation of A: a permutation of some r-subset of A

 - A = {1 · a, 2 · b, 3 · c}
 a, b, c, b, c, c is a permutation of A; bcb is a 3-permutation of A;

THEOREM: Let $A = \{n_1 \cdot a_1, n_2 \cdot a_2, \dots, n_k \cdot a_k\}$ be a multiset.

Then A has exactly $\frac{(n_1+n_2+\cdots+n_k)!}{(n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!)}$ permutations. **REMARK:** Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$ be a set of n elements.

- r-permutation of A who repetition: r-permutation of $\{1 \cdot a_1, \dots, 1 \cdot a_n\}$.
 - r-permutation of A with repetition: r-permutation of $\{\infty \cdot a_1, ..., \infty \cdot a_n\}$. 过日生姜节城的美海。

Permutations of Multiset

DEFINITION: Let $A = \{n_1 \cdot a_1, ..., n_k \cdot a_k\}$ be an *n*-multiset.

- **permutation of** A: a sequence x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n of n elements, where a_i appears exactly n_i times for every $i \in [k]$.
- r-permutation of A: a permutation of some r-subset of A
 - $A = \{1 \cdot a, 2 \cdot b, 3 \cdot c\}$
 - a, b, c, b, c, c is a permutation of *A*; bcb is a 3-permutation of *A*;
 - bcb is a permutation of the subset $\{2 \cdot b, 1 \cdot c\}$

REMARK: Let $A = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$ be a set of n elements.

- For every $r \in [n]$, an r-permutation of A without repetition is an r-permutation of $\{1 \cdot a_1, 1 \cdot a_2, ..., 1 \cdot a_n\}$.
 - For every $r \ge 1$, an r-permutation of A with repetition is an r-permutation of $\{\infty \cdot a_1, \infty \cdot a_2, ..., \infty \cdot a_n\}$.

THEOREM: Let $A = \{n_1 \cdot a_1, n_2 \cdot a_2, ..., n_k \cdot a_k\}$ be a multiset.

Then A has exactly $\frac{(n_1+n_2+\cdots+n_k)!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!}$ permutations.