

Combinatorics

Sequences and Words

- A **sequence** is an ordered list of objects, with repetitions of the same objects allowed (as opposed to a set).
- The objects of a sequence are called **terms**.
- A sequence may be finite:

$$(1, 2, 3, 4); (a, b, \dots, z);$$

Or infinite

$$(2, 4, 6, \dots); (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots)$$

- The order matters;
- $(1, 2, 3)$ is a different sequence than $(3, 2, 1)$.
- If all terms of a sequence are from a set U , the sequence is a **sequence in U** or a **U -sequence**.
- For example, $(1, 2, 3)$ is a sequence in \mathbb{N} .
 - It's also a sequence in $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$, in \mathbb{Q} , in \mathbb{Z} , and in \mathbb{R} .
- A sequence can also be called a **word** in the alphabet U .
- The sequence (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k) with n_i possible values for each t_i . Then:

$$s = n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$$

Corollary:

- Let $|A| = n$.
- Then there are n^k sequences of length k in A .

Exercise:

How many 3-letter words can be formed with the English alphabet?

Term 1 2 3

— — —

$26 \cdot 26 \cdot 26 = 17576$. The words are AAA, AAB, AAC, ..., ZZZ

↑

26 letter options in alphabet

Permutations

- A sequence in which all terms are distinct is called a **permutation**.
- If $|S| = n$, a sequence of length $k \leq n$ of all distinct objects is called a **permutation of n objects taken k at a time**.
- If $k = n$, we just say **permutations of n objects**.

Exercise:

Let $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. The following words in S are permutations of 6 objects taken 3 at a time.

$$s_1 = \{1, 4, 6\}, s_2 = \{3, 2, 4\}, s_3 = \{5, 3, 1\}$$

The following words in S are permutations of 6 objects.

$$s_4 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, s_5 = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\}, s_6 = \{6, 5, 1, 3, 2, 4\}$$

- There are $P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ Permutations of n objects taken k at a time.
- Notice that $\frac{(n!)}{(n-k)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot n}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot k} = n(n-1) \dots (n-k+1)$.
- This has a shorter notation called “**falling factorial**” $n^{\underline{k}}$, which is also used for $k > n$.
- When $k \leq n$, we have:

$$n^{\underline{k}} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}, \text{ and when } k > n, n^{\underline{k}} = 0$$

Exercise:

Let $n = 7, k = 10$.

$$7^{\underline{10}} = 7 \cdot 6 \cdot \dots \cdot 1 \cdot 0 \cdot (-1) \cdot (-2) = 0$$

Theorem:

- For all $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$, there are $n^{\underline{k}}$ permutations of n objects taken k at a time.

Proof:

If $k > n$, there is no way to permute n objects k at a time, so the answer must be zero.

If $k \leq n$, there are n choices for the 1st element, then $(n-1)$ choices for the 2nd, etc.

So the possibilities are:

$$n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-k+1) = n^{\underline{k}} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \blacksquare$$

Corollary:

- For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there are $n!$ permutations of n objects.

Counting Strategies

- Consider the problem, "how many sequences satisfy a certain set of properties?"
- We use counting strategy to answer this question methodically.
- For a sequence of length k , use k empty slots:

1 2 3 ... k

- Fill each slot one at a time, with the number of possible values for each term, given the restrictions of the properties.

$\frac{n_1}{1}$ $\frac{n_2}{2}$ $\frac{n_3}{3}$... $\frac{n_k}{k}$

- By multiplication rule, there are $n_1 n_2 n_3 \dots n_k$ possible sequences.

Exercise:

There are 2 highways from Brisbane to Sydney, and 3 highways from Sydney to Adelaide. How many different round trips from Brisbane to Adelaide via Sydney are there? How many are there without taking the same highway twice?

A: 1st problem: $\frac{2}{B-S} \cdot \frac{3}{S-A} \cdot \frac{3}{A-S} \cdot \frac{2}{S-B} = 36$

2nd problem: $\frac{2}{B-S} \cdot \frac{3}{S-A} \cdot \frac{2}{A-S} \cdot \frac{1}{S-B} = 12$
↳ one less to avoid same highway.

- You don't necessarily have to start with the 1st position.
- Start where it's most convenient.

Exercise:

How many 5-digit odd numbers with no repeated digits are there?

8 8 7 6 5

↳ Next
Cannot be one chosen from digit 5

↳ Last digit must be odd to be an odd number.
Start here with options 1, 3, 5, 7, 9

↳ Can't include 1st digit chosen but can include last.

- Sometimes, we need to break a problem up into subproblems.

Exercise:

How many 5-digit even numbers with no repeated digits are there?

① If last digit is 0

$$\begin{array}{c} 9 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 8 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 7 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 6 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

② If last digit is not 0

$$\begin{array}{c} 8 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 8 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 7 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 6 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

There's the same restriction on digit 5, but the restriction on digit 1 is different if digit 5 is zero.

Required Adjacency

- For a required adjacency, treat the adjacency as a single object, then multiple by the number of arrangements of the adjacency.

Exercise:

Three single people and a married couple are to be seated in a row of chairs. In how many ways can it be done such that the spouses sit together?

$$\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = 24 \text{ total arrangements with } n=4 \text{ because H-W must sit together.}$$

$$24 \cdot 2 = 48$$

↳ The permutations of required adjacency i.e. (W-H), (H-W)

Forbidden Adjacency

- For a forbidden adjacency, calculate it as a required adjacency, and then subtract from the total possible arrangements.

Exercise:

In how many ways can you align a cow, a goat, a fox, and a chicken such that the fox and the chicken are not next to each other.

Required adjacency (CH-FX):

$$\begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = 6$$

$$\begin{array}{c} 6 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \hline \end{array} = 12$$

CH-FX FX-CH

Total permutations w/out adjacency: $\begin{array}{c} 4 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 3 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ \hline \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \hline \end{array} = 24$

Forbidden adjacency: $24 - 12 = 12$ □

Binomial Coefficients

- Recall the power set of x : $P(x) = \{A : A \subseteq X\}$.

$$P(\{1, 2, 3\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$$

- Another notation for $P(X)$ is 2^X . This is because of the following.

Theorem:

- Let $|X| = n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$
- Then X has 2^n subsets, i.e. $|P(X)| = 2^{|X|}$

Proof:

With induction.

a) Let $n = 0$, then $X = \emptyset$, and $P(X) = \{\emptyset\}$, so $|P(X)| = 1 = 2^0$

b) Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, suppose $|X| = k$ and $|P(X)| = 2^k$. Define

$$Y = X \cup \{y\} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k, y\}.$$

The subsets of Y are those that contain y , and those that do not. Those that do not are exactly the subsets of X , of which there are 2^k . Those that do contain y are of the form $Z \cup \{y\}$, where $Z \in P(X)$, so there are exactly 2^k of those too. Therefore, $|Y| = 2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}$.

$$\therefore |P(X)| = 2^{|X|} \quad \forall X \text{ finite} \quad \blacksquare$$

- Let $|X| = n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. For every $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$, we denote by $\binom{n}{k}$ the number of subsets of X with k elements.

$$\binom{n}{k} = |\{A : A \subseteq X \text{ and } |A| = k\}|$$

- The symbol $\binom{n}{k}$ is read “ n choose k ” or “the k^{th} BINOMIAL COEFFICIENT of order n ”
- Some $\binom{n}{k}$ are obvious:

$\binom{n}{0} = 1$, since the only subset of cardinality 0 is \emptyset .

$\binom{n}{n} = 1$, since X is the only subset of X with n elements.

If $k > n$, then $\binom{n}{k} = 0$, as it's impossible to have a subset of X with cardinality larger than that of X .

Theorem:

- For all $n, k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$,

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{k!}$$

Proof:

For $k > n$, we've seen that $n^{\underline{k}} = 0$, and $\binom{n}{k} = 0$.

Let $k \leq n$. Recall that the number of permutations of n objects taken k at a time is $P_k^n = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$.

This number can be obtained by taking all $\binom{n}{k}$ combinations of k elements and ordering the elements in each combination, which can be done in P_k^k ways. Thus,

$$P_k^n = \binom{n}{k} P_k^k \Rightarrow \binom{n}{k} = \frac{P_k^n}{P_k^k} = \frac{\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} = \frac{n^{\underline{k}}}{k!}$$

- The symbol $\binom{n}{k}$ is also denoted by C_k^n , the number of combinations of n objects taken k at a time.

Exercise:

How many different poker hands are there?

A: There are 5 cards in a poker hand.
order is not important.

They are taken from a deck of 52 cards.

$$\binom{52}{5} = \frac{52!}{5!(52-5)!} = 2,598,960 \text{ poker hands}$$

Theorem:

- For all $n, k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \ni 0 \leq k \leq n$, $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$

Proof:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)![n-(n-k)]!} = \binom{n}{n-k}$$

Theorem:

- For all $n, k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \ni 0 \leq k \leq n$,
 - $\binom{n}{0} = 1$
 - $\binom{0}{k} = 0$
 - $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$

Proof:



The Binomial Theorem

- Motivation:
 - In how many ways can 3 red marbles and 4 blue marbles be arranged in a row? (Or a more practical example: how many binary words are there with 3 zeros and 4 ones?). The multiplication rule isn't very helpful here; there are too many cases. However, considering the 7 slots:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Notice that once you choose slots for the red marbles, the placement of the blue ones is automatic. So the question is, how many ways are there to choose 3 of the 7 slots? We know the answer is $\binom{7}{3} = 35$. Similarly, if you choose 4 slots for the blue marbles first, there are $\binom{7}{4} = 35$ ways to do it. The answer is the same, because $\binom{7}{3} = \binom{7}{4} = \frac{7!}{3!4!}$

Theorem:

- The number of words of length n consisting of n_1 letters of one sort, and $n_2 = n - n_1$, letters of a second sort is:

$$\binom{n}{n_1} = \binom{n}{n_2} = \frac{(n_1 + n_2)!}{n_1! n_2!}$$

- Consider the binomial expansion

$$(x + y)^2 = xx = xy + yx + yy$$

which is the sum of all words of length 2 in the alphabet $\{x, y\}$.
Similarly,

$$(x + y)^3 = xxx + xxy + xyx + xyy + yxx + yxy + yyx + yyy$$

is the sum of all words of length 3 in the alphabet $\{x, y\}$.
By simplifying, we get the familiar formulae:

$$(x + y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2$$

$$(x + y)^3 = x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3$$

- The binomial theorem below is a formula for the coefficients of binomial expansion to any power in \mathbb{N} .

Theorem (Binomial Theorem):

- For all $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$,

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

Proof:

The case $n = 0$ is easily verified by hand. For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the expansion of $(x + y)^n$ is (before simplification) the sum of all 2^n words of length n in the alphabet $\{x, y\}$.

The number of such words that consist of k x 's and $(n - k)$ y 's is $\binom{n}{k}$ by the previous theorem.

The binomial theorem as written gives the expansion in ascending powers of x :

$$(x + y)^n = y^n + n \cdot xy^{n-1} + \binom{n}{2} x^2 y^{n-2} + \binom{n}{3} x^3 y^{n-3} + \cdots + n \cdot x^{n-1} y + x^n$$

Equivalently, it can be written in reverse:

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

We can substitute values for x and y to obtain identities.

Exercise:

Let $x = y = 1$. Then the binomial theorem gives:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} = 2^n$$

Exercise:

Let $x = -1, y = 1$. Then the binomial theorem gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} &= \binom{n}{0} - \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} - \cdots + (-1)^n \binom{n}{n} = 0; \\ \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{2} + \cdots &= \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{3} + \cdots; \\ \sum_{k \text{ even}}^n \binom{n}{k} &= \sum_{k \text{ odd}}^n \binom{n}{k} \end{aligned}$$

- Sometimes, a useful trick is to use the fact that $x = x \cdot 1$.

Exercise:

Simplify $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k$.

A:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^k \cdot 1^{n-k} = (a + 1)^n$$

Exercise:

Simplify $\sum_{k=1}^{17} (-1)^k \binom{17}{k} 13^{17-k}$

A:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{17} \binom{17}{k} 13^{17-k} (-1)^k &= \sum_{k=0}^{17} \binom{17}{k} 13^{17-k} (-1)^k - \binom{17}{0} 13^{17-0} (-1)^0 \\ &= (13 - 1)^{17} - 1 \cdot 13^{17} \cdot 1 \\ &= 12^{17} - 13^{17}\end{aligned}$$