Permutations and Combinations

The Pigeonhole Principle.

A typical situation

A drawer in a dark room contains red socks, green socks, and blue socks. How many socks must you withdraw to be sure that you have a matching pair?



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A typical situation

A drawer in a dark room contains red socks, green socks, and blue socks. How many socks must you withdraw to be sure that you have a matching pair?



Four is enough.

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The Pigeonhole Principle



If you have 10 pigeons in 9 boxes, at least one box contains two birds.

The pigeonhole principle. If k is a positive integer and k+1 or more objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing two or more of the objects.

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The Binomial Theorem

What is the minimum number of students required in a class to be sure that at least two will receive the same grade, if there are five possible grades, A, B, C, D, and F?

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What is the minimum number of students required in a class to be sure that at least two will receive the same grade, if there are five possible grades, A, B, C, D, and F?

5 + 1 = 6 students.

Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle. If N objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ objects.

Ceiling function:

$$\lceil x \rceil$$
 = the smallest integer not less that that x

So, for example,

$$\lceil 2.0 \rceil = 2$$

 $\lceil 0.5 \rceil = 1$
 $\lceil -3.5 \rceil = -3$

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Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle. If N objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ objects.

Example: How many cards must be selected from a standard deck of 52 cards to guarantee that at least three cards of the same suit are chosen?

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Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle. If N objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ objects.

Example: How many cards must be selected from a standard deck of 52 cards to guarantee that at least three cards of the same suit are chosen?

"Birds" are cards. "Boxes" are suits, k = 4.

How many cards, N, should we take to guarantee that at least three of them fall in the same "box" (suit):

$$\left\lceil \frac{N}{k} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{N}{4} \right\rceil \ge 3 > 2.$$

The smallest possible $N = 2 \cdot 4 + 1 = 9$.

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Count the number of ways to arrange the elements of this set:

$${a, b, c, d, e, f}$$

- There are 6 ways to select the first element,
- 5 ways to select the second element,
- 4 ways to select the third ...
- ...continue the process
- In the end, the only remaining element takes the last position.

$$6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$
 ways!

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Factorial

How large this number is?

$$6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 720$$

This function is called *factorial* and denoted by *n*!:

$$1! = 1$$

$$2! = 2 \cdot 1$$

$$3! = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

$$5! = 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

$$6! = 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot (n-3) \cdot \dots \cdot 1$$
and by convention,
$$0! = 1$$

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Def. A *permutation* of a set of distinct objects is an ordered arrangement of these objects.

A finite set of 6 elements has

$$P(6) = 6! = 720$$
 permutations.

A finite set *A* with cardinality |A| = n has

$$P(n) = n!$$
 permutations.

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What if we want to arrange only r elements?

Def. An ordered arrangement of r elements of a set is called an r-permutation.

Can we get the formula the the number of r-permutations?

Count the number of ways to arrange 4 elements of the set:

$${a, b, c, d, e, f}$$

- There are 6 ways to select the first element,
- 5 ways to select the second element,
- 4 ways to select the third ...
- 3 ways to select the fourth ...

$$6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3$$
 ways!

The number of r-permutations of the set of n elements:

$$P(n,r) = \underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1)}_{\text{product of } r \text{ numbers}}$$

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The number of r-permutations of the set of n elements:

$$P(n,r) = \underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1)}_{\text{product of } r \text{ numbers}}$$

Multiply and divide by $(n-r) \cdot (n-r-1) \cdot \ldots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$,

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{(n-r) \cdot (n-r-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

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The number of r-permutations of the set of n elements:

$$P(n,r) = \underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1)}_{\text{product of } r \text{ numbers}}$$

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

The formula makes sense only for $0 \le r \le n$, otherwise the notion of r-permutation does not make sense.

How many ways are there to select a first-prize winner, a secondprize winner, and a third-prize winner from 100 different people who have entered a contest? The Pigeonhole Principle

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How many ways are there to select a first-prize winner, a secondprize winner, and a third-prize winner from 100 different people who have entered a contest?

$$P(100,3) = 100 \cdot 99 \cdot 98 = 970200.$$

Alternatively,

$$P(100,3) = \frac{100!}{(100-3)!} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot 100}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot 97} = 98 \cdot 99 \cdot 100 = 970200.$$

What if the order does not matter?

You are given all r-permutations of a set.

Now, let's say that you don't really care about the ordering in each r-permutation.

Concrete example. You are given a group of 4 students, $\{a, b, c, d\}$. How many groups of 3 students can be formed?

The total number of 3-permutations: $P(4,3) = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 = 24$.

All possible groups: abc, acb, bac, bca, cab, cba the same subset $\{a, b, c\}$ abd, adb, bad, bda, dab, dba the same subset $\{a, b, d\}$ acd, acb, cad, cda, dac, dca the same subset $\{a, c, d\}$ bcd, bcb, cbd, cdb, dbc, dcb the same subset $\{b, c, d\}$

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What if the order does not matter?

Concrete example. You are given a group of 4 students, $\{a, b, c, d\}$. How many groups of 3 students can be formed?

The total number of 3-permutations: $P(4,3) = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 = 24$.

Let x be the number of unordered selections of 3 students, such as, for example: $\{a, b, c\}$, $\{a, b, d\}$, $\{a, c, d\}$, $\{b, c, d\}$.

Each such selection can be realized in P(3) = 3! = 6 permutations, e.g. $\{a, b, c\}$ has the following 6 permutations: abc, acb, bac, bca, cab, cba.

$$P(4,3) = x \cdot P(3).$$

Thus, there are only $x = \frac{P(4,3)}{P(3)} = \frac{24}{6} = 4$ unordered selections of 3 students.

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Def. An *r*-combination of elements of a set is an unordered selection of *r* elements from the set.

The number of r-combinations is

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{P(n,r)}{P(r)}$$

This notations reads as "n choose r".

Combinations

Def. An r-combination of elements of a set is an unordered selection of r elements from the set.

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The number of r-combinations is

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{P(n,r)}{P(r)}$$

Let's express it in terms of n, r, and their factorials:

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$
 and $P(r) = r!$, therefore

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)! \ r!}$$

Example with cards

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)! \ r!}$$

Counting hands of 5 cards from the deck of 52.

Count the number of ways 5 cards can be dealt from the deck of 52 if their order does not matter.

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Example with cards

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)! \ r!}$$

Counting hands of 5 cards from the deck of 52.

Count the number of ways 5 cards can be dealt from the deck of 52 if their order does not matter.

$$\binom{52}{5} = \frac{52!}{(52-5)! \, 5!} = \frac{52!}{47! \, 5!} = \frac{48 \cdot 49 \cdot 50 \cdot 51 \cdot 52}{5!} = 2598960.$$

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Example with cards

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)! \ r!}$$

Counting hands of 5 cards from the deck of 52.

Count the number of ways 5 cards can be dealt from the deck of 52 if their order does not matter.

$$\binom{52}{5} = \frac{52!}{(52-5)! \ 5!} = \frac{52!}{47! \ 5!} = \frac{48 \cdot 49 \cdot 50 \cdot 51 \cdot 52}{5!} = 2598960.$$

More examples:

$$\binom{52}{2} = \frac{51 \cdot 52}{2} = 1326.$$
 $\binom{52}{1} = 52.$

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Summary

Given a set with *n* elements.

The number of *permutations* of the elements the set:

$$P(n) = n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \ldots \cdot 1$$

The number of *r*-*permutations* of the set:

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!} = \underbrace{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1)}_{\text{product of } r \text{ numbers}}$$

The number of unordered r-combinations ("n choose r"):

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{P(n,r)}{P(r)} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)! \ r!}$$

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Let's try to be more systematic

How does $\binom{n}{r}$ change with r?

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{0!}{0! \ 0!} = 1.$$

$$\binom{1}{0} = \frac{1!}{1! \ 0!} = 1, \quad \binom{1}{1} = \frac{1!}{0! \ 1!} = 1.$$

$$\binom{2}{0} = \frac{2!}{2! \ 0!} = \frac{1}{1!}, \quad \binom{2}{1} = \frac{2!}{1! \ 1!} = \frac{2}{1!}, \quad \binom{2}{2} = \frac{2!}{0! \ 2!} = \frac{1}{1!}.$$

$$\binom{3}{0} = \frac{3!}{3! \ 0!} = 1$$
, $\binom{3}{1} = \frac{3!}{2! \ 1!} = 3$, $\binom{3}{2} = \frac{3!}{1! \ 2!} = 3$, $\binom{3}{3} = \frac{3!}{0! \ 3!} = 1$.

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$$\frac{3!}{1!2!} = 3$$
, $\binom{3}{3} = \frac{3!}{0!3!} = 1$.

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	1
$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	1 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$	1 2 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$	1 3 3 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$	1 4 6 4 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$	1 5 10 10 5 1

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The Binomial Theorem

The numbers in Pascal's Triangle are the coefficients of the polynomials of the form $(x + y)^n$:

$$(x+y)^{1} = x + y$$

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

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

$$(x+y)^{4} = x^{4} + 4x^{3}y + 6x^{2}y^{2} + 4xy^{3} + y^{4}$$

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The numbers in Pascal's Triangle are the coefficients of the polynomials of the form $(x + y)^n$:

$$(x+y)^{1} = 1x + 1y$$

$$(x+y)^{2} = 1x^{2} + 2xy + 1y^{2}$$

$$(x+y)^{3} = 1x^{3} + 3x^{2}y + 3xy^{2} + 1y^{3}$$

$$(x+y)^{4} = 1x^{4} + 4x^{3}y + 6x^{2}y^{2} + 4xy^{3} + 1y^{4}$$

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The numbers in Pascal's Triangle are the coefficients of the polynomials of the form $(x + y)^n$:

$$(x+y)^{1} = 1x + 1y$$

$$(x+y)^{2} = 1x^{2} + 2xy + 1y^{2}$$

$$(x+y)^{3} = 1x^{3} + 3x^{2}y + 3xy^{2} + 1y^{3}$$

$$(x+y)^{4} = 1x^{4} + 4x^{3}y + 6x^{2}y^{2} + 4xy^{3} + 1y^{4}$$

The general formula is

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot x^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2} \cdot x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n} \cdot y^n.$$

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The numbers in Pascal's Triangle are the coefficients of the polynomials of the form $(x + y)^n$:

$$(x+y)^{1} = 1x + 1y$$

$$(x+y)^{2} = 1x^{2} + 2xy + 1y^{2}$$

$$(x+y)^{3} = 1x^{3} + 3x^{2}y + 3xy^{2} + 1y^{3}$$

$$(x+y)^{4} = 1x^{4} + 4x^{3}y + 6x^{2}y^{2} + 4xy^{3} + 1y^{4}$$

The general formula is

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

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Coefficients of $(x + y)^n$

Let's prove

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot x^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2} \cdot x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n} \cdot y^n.$$

$$(x+y)^{n} = \underbrace{(x+y) \cdot (x+y) \cdot \dots \cdot (x+y)}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{\underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x}_{n \text{ times}} + \underbrace{(x \cdot \dots \cdot x) \cdot y + \dots + y \cdot (x \cdot \dots \cdot x)}_{=x^{n-1}} + \underbrace{(x \cdot \dots \cdot x) \cdot (y \cdot y) + \dots + (y \cdot y) \cdot (\underbrace{x \cdot \dots \cdot x}_{=x^{n-2}}) + \underbrace{y \cdot y \cdot \dots \cdot y}_{=y^{n}}$$

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Coefficients of $(x + y)^n$

Let's prove

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot x^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2} \cdot x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n} \cdot y^n.$$

$$(x+y)^{n} = \underbrace{(x+y) \cdot (x+y) \cdot \dots \cdot (x+y)}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{1 \cdot x^{n} + \dots \cdot x^{n-1} y + \dots \cdot x^{n-1} y + \dots \cdot x^{n-2} y^{2} + \dots + \dots \cdot x^{n-1} y}_{1 \cdot y^{n}}$$

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Coefficients of $(x + y)^n$

Let's prove

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot x^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2} \cdot x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n} \cdot y^n.$$

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$$(x+y)^n = \underbrace{(x+y)\cdot(x+y)\cdot\ldots\cdot(x+y)}_{n \text{ times}} = \underbrace{\binom{n}{0}\cdot x^n + \binom{n}{1}\cdot x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2}\cdot x^{n-2}y^2 + \ldots + \binom{n}{n}\cdot y^n}_{n}.$$

Shorter notation for the same thing:

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

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The Binomial

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0} \cdot x^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2} \cdot x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n} \cdot y^n.$$

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

This result is called *The Binomial Theorem*, and this is why the coefficients, $\binom{n}{k}$, are also called the *binomial coefficients*.

Let's prove that

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \ldots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n.$$

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Let's prove that

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \ldots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n.$$

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

Therefore,

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

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$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \ldots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n.$$

Results like this are not so obvious.

Recall that

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

So,

$$\frac{n!}{n! \ 0!} + \frac{n!}{(n-1)! \ 1!} + \frac{n!}{(n-2)! \ 2!} + \dots + \frac{n!}{0! \ n!} = 2^n.$$

In this form, the result seems to be much harder to prove.

Pascal's Triangle Again

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	1
$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	1 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$	1 2 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$	1 3 3 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$	1 4 6 4 1
$\begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$	1 5 10 10 5 1

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Pascal's Identity

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The Binomial

$$\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k}$$

Every number in Pascal's triangle is equal to the sum of the two numbers that are immediately above.