CSE 312

Foundations of Computing II

Lecture 3: Counting III



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Slide Credit: Based on Stefano Tessaro's slides for 312 19au

incorporating ideas from Anna Karlin, Alex Tsun, Rachel Lin, Hunter Schafer & myself 😊

Agenda

- Recap
- Inclusion-Exclusion
- Binomial Theorem
- Pigeonhole Principle
- Combinatorial Proofs



Recap

Permutations

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

Combinations

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

Recap

• Multinomial Coefficients (bonus content in textbook, 1.2)

Stars and Bars

Ways to distribute n indistinguishable balls into k distinct bins =

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

Agenda

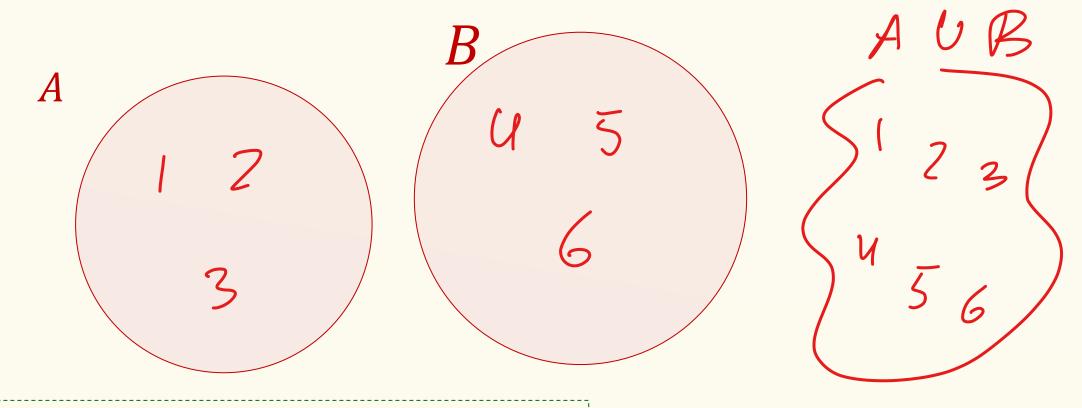
- Recap
- Inclusion-Exclusion



- Binomial Theorem
- Pigeonhole Principle
- Combinatorial Proofs

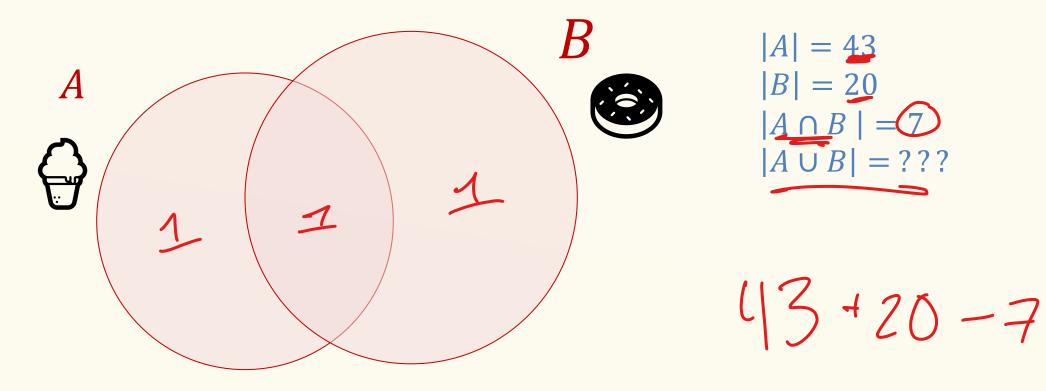
Recap Disjoint Sets

Sets that do not contain common elements $(A \cap B = \emptyset)$

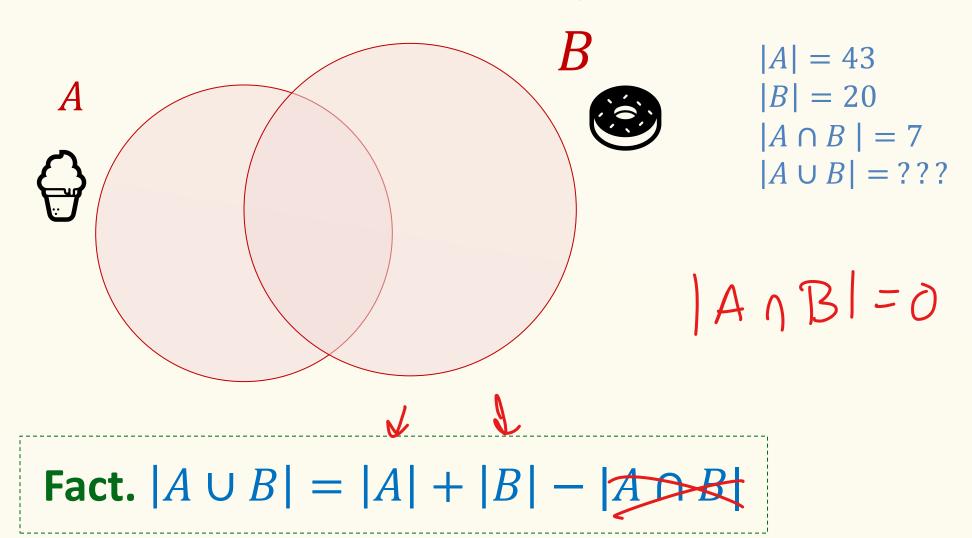


Sum Rule: $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$

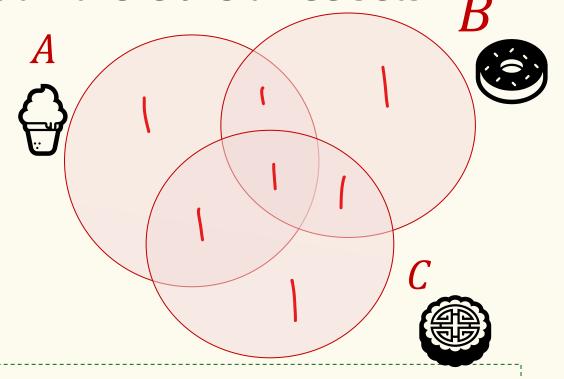
But what if the sets are not disjoint?



But what if the sets are not disjoint?



What if there are three sets?



$$|A| = 43$$

 $|B| = 20$
 $|C| = 35$
 $|A \cap B| = 7$
 $|A \cap C| = 16$
 $|B \cap C| = 11$
 $|A \cap B \cap C| = 4$
 $|A \cup B \cup C| = ???$

Fact.

$$|A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C|$$

- $|A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C|$
+ $|A \cap B \cap C|$

Let A, B be sets. Then

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$

In general, if $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ are sets, then

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n| = singles - doubles + triples - quads + \dots$$

= $(|A_1| + \dots + |A_n|) - (|A_1 \cap A_2| + \dots + |A_{n-1} \cap A_n|) + \dots$

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Binomial Theorem: Idea

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

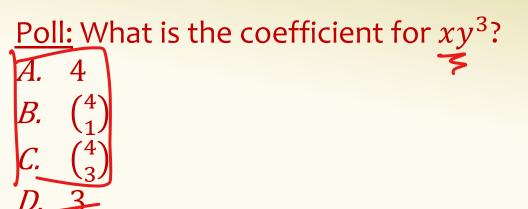
$$= xx + xy + yx + yy$$

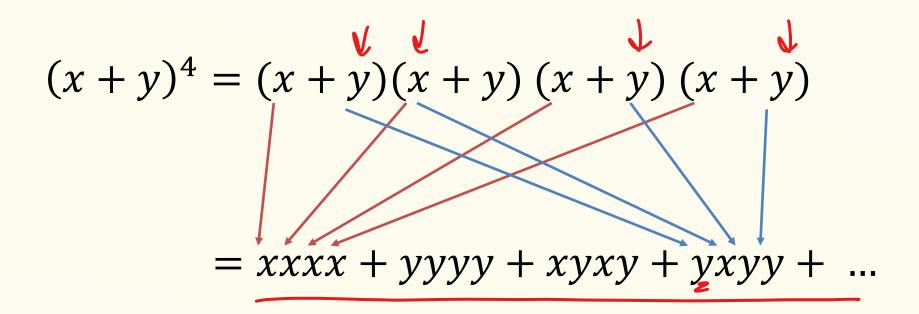
$$= x^{2} + 2xy + y^{2}$$

$$(x + y)^{4} = (x + y)(x + y)(x + y)(x + y)$$

$$= xxxx + yyyy + xyxy + yxyy + ...$$

Binomial Theorem: Idea





Binomial Theorem: Idea

$$\binom{u}{1} \times y^3 = 4 \times y^3$$

$$(x + y)^{n} = (x + y)(x + y)(x + y) \cdots (x + y)$$

Each term is of the form $x^{k}y^{n-k}$, since each term is is made by $\binom{n}{l} = q$ multiplying exactly n variables, either x or y.

How many times do we get $x^k y^{n-k}$? The number of ways to choose k^{k-1} of the n variables we multiple to be an x (the rest will be y).

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

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

$$\binom{2}{2} = 1$$

$$\binom{2}{2} = 1$$

Binomial Theorem

Theorem. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ a positive integer. Then,

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

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

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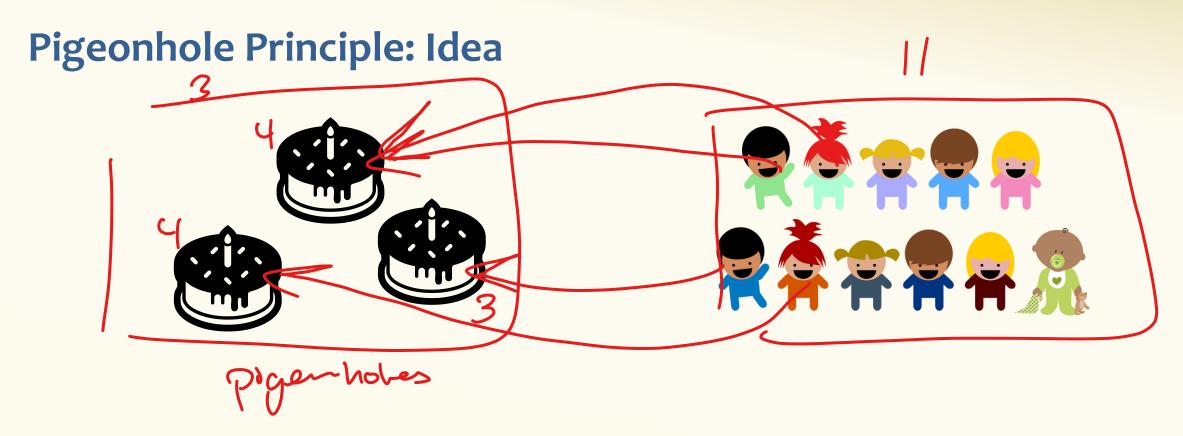


Combinatorial Proofs

Pigeonhole Principle (PHP): Idea

10 pigeons, 9 pigeonholes





If 11 children have to share 3 cakes, at least one cake must be shared by how many children?

Pigeonhole Principle – More generally

$$h = 10$$
 $\frac{10}{9} = 1. = >1$

If there are n pigeons in k < n holes, then one hole must

contain at least pigeons!

$$n = 11$$
 $11 = 3.66 > 3$
 $h = 3$ $3 = 3.66 > 3$

Proof. Assume there are $<\frac{n}{k}$ pigeons per hole. Then, there are $<\frac{n}{k} = n$ pigeons overall.

Contradiction!

Pigeonhole Principle - Better version

If there are n pigeons in k < n holes, then one hole must contain at least $\left\lceil \frac{n}{k} \right\rceil$ pigeons!

Reason. Can't have fractional number of pigeons

Syntax reminder:



- Ceiling: [x] is x rounded up to the nearest integer (e.g., [2.731] = 3)
- Floor: [x] is x rounded down to the nearest integer (e.g., [2.731] = 2)

Pigeonhole Principle – Example

In a room with 367 people, there are at least two with the same birthday.

Solution:

- 1. **367** pigeons = people
- 2. **365** holes = possible birthdays
- 3. Person goes into hole corresponding to own birthday
- 4. By PHP, there must be two people with the same birthday

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 367 \\ 365 \end{bmatrix} = 2$$

Pigeonhole Principle: Strategy

To use the PHP to solve a problem, there are generally 4 steps

- 1. Identify pigeons
- 2. Identify pigeonholes
- 3. Specify how pigeons are assigned to pigeonholes
- 4. Apply PHP

Pigeonhole Principle – Example (Surprising?)

In every set S of 100 integers, there are at least **two** elements whose difference is a multiple of 37.



When solving a PHP problem:

- 1. Identify pigeons
- 2. Identify pigeonholes
- 3. Specify how pigeons are assigned to pigeonholes
- 4. Apply PHP

Pigeons: The integers, n = 100
Pigeonholes: 0 - 36, k = 37
Mapping: The integer mod 37
PHP: There must be at least one value 0 - 36 wire

PHP: There must be at least one value 0 - 36 with ciel(100/37) =

3 integers assigned to it.

This means there are at least 2 integers a and b where

which means that the difference between them is a multiple of 37

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Combinatorial proof: Show that M = N

- Let S be a set of objects
- Show how to count |S| one way => |S| = M
- Show how to count |S| another way => |S| = N
- Conclude that M = N

Binomial Coefficient – Many interesting and useful properties

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

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} \qquad \binom{n}{n} = 1 \qquad \binom{n}{1} = n \qquad \binom{n}{0} = 1$$

Fact.
$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$$
 Symmetry in Binomial Coefficients

Fact.
$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$
 Pascal's Identity

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

Follows from Binomial theorem

Pascal's Identities

Fact.
$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$
 How to prove Pascal's identity?

Algebraic argument:

$${\binom{n-1}{k-1}} + {\binom{n-1}{k}} = \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)! (n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k! (n-1-k)!}$$

$$= 20 \ years \ later \dots$$

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

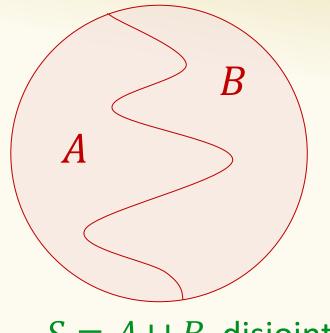
$$= {\binom{n}{k}} \quad \text{Hard work and not intuitive}$$

Let's see a combinatorial argument

Example – Binomial Identity

Fact.
$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$
 $|S| = |A| + |B|$

$$S:$$
 the set of size k subsets of $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ \Rightarrow $|S| = \binom{n}{k}$



$$|S| = \binom{n}{k}$$

A: the set of size k subsets of [n] including n

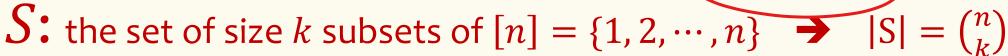
B: the set of size k subsets of [n] NOT including n

Sum rule:

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$$

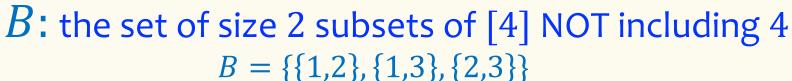
Example – Binomial Identity

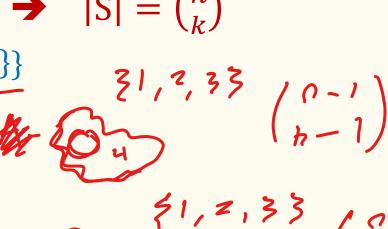
Fact.
$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$
 $|S| = |A| + |B|$



e.g.:
$$n = 4, k = 2, S = \{\{1,2\}, \{1,3\}, \{1,4\}, \{2,3\}, \{2,4\}, \{3,4\}\}\}$$

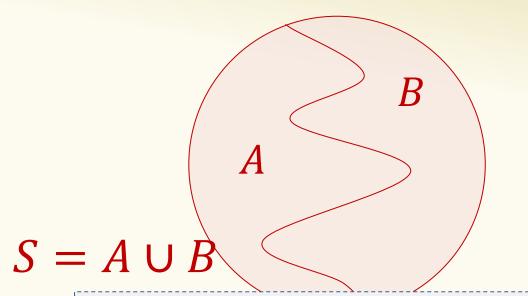
A: the set of size(2) subsets of [4] including 4 $A = \{\{1,4\}, \{2,4\}, \{3,4\}\}.$





Example – Binomial Identity

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



S: the set of size k subsets of $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

A: the set of size k subsets of [n] including n

B: the set of size k subsets of [n] NOT including n

n is in set, need to choose k-1 elements from [n-1]

$$|A| = \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

n not in set, need to choose k elements from [n-1]

$$|B| = \binom{n-1}{k}$$

combinatorial argument/proof

- Elegant
- Simple
- Intuitive



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Algebraic argument

- Brute force
- Less Intuitive



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Counting Recap

Core Theorems

- Sum & Product Rule
- Permutations and Combinations
- Inclusion-Exclusion
- Binomial Theorem

Counting Strategies

- Complimentary Counting
- Stars and Bars
- Pigeonhole Principle
- Combinatorial Proofs