

Observation 1: The injective k -tuples $\vec{s} \in S^k$

such that the set of entries of \vec{s} is W
are exactly the injective k -tuples $\vec{s} \in W^k$.

[Proof: Each injective k -tuple $\vec{s} \in W^k$ has the
property that its set of entries is W ,
because it is a k -element subset of the
 k -element set W .]

$$= \sum_{\substack{W \subseteq S; \\ |W|=k}} (\# \text{ of injective } k\text{-tuples } \vec{s} \in W^k)$$

$= |W_{\text{dist}}^k| = k^{\underline{k}}$ (by Prop. 2.22,
since $|W|=k$)

$$= \sum_{\substack{W \subseteq S; \\ |W|=k}} \underbrace{k^{\underline{k}}}_{= k!} = \sum_{\substack{W \subseteq S; \\ |W|=k}} k! \cdot (\# \text{ of } W \subseteq S \text{ such that } |W|=k),$$

Thus, $(\# \text{ of } W \subseteq S \text{ such that } |W|=k) = \underbrace{|S_{\text{dist}}^k|}_{= n^{\underline{k}}} / k!$

$$= n^{\underline{k}} / k! = \binom{n}{k}. \quad \square$$

2.6. The polynomial identity trick revisited

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4th proof of Thm. 2.18 when $x \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y \in \mathbb{N}$.

Rename x and y as a and b . So we must prove:

$$(8) \quad \binom{a+b}{n} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{a}{k} \binom{b}{n-k}.$$

Consider the polynomial $(1+x)^{a+b}$. Compare

$$(1+x)^{a+b} = \sum_{m=0}^{a+b} \binom{a+b}{m} x^m \quad (\text{by binom. formula})$$

$$\stackrel{?}{=} \sum_m \binom{a+b}{m} x^m$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{with } (1+x)^{a+b} &= \underbrace{(1+x)^a}_{= \sum_i \binom{a}{i} x^i} \cdot \underbrace{(1+x)^b}_{= \sum_j \binom{b}{j} x^j} \\ &\stackrel{\text{(by binom. formula)}}{=} \sum_i \binom{a}{i} x^i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_j \binom{b}{j} x^j \\ &\stackrel{\text{(by binom. formula)}}{=} \sum_i \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{j} x^i x^j \end{aligned}$$

$$= \left(\sum_i \binom{a}{i} x^i \right) \left(\sum_j \binom{b}{j} x^j \right) = \sum_{(i,j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}} \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{j} x^i x^j$$

$$= \sum_{(i,j) \in N \times N} \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{j} x^{i+j}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in N} \left(\sum_{\substack{(i,j) \in N \times N \\ i+j=k}} \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{j} \right) x^k$$

$= \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{k-i}$

$$= \sum_{k \in N} \left(\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{k-i} \right) x^k$$

$$= \sum_{m \in N} \left(\sum_{k=0}^m \binom{a}{k} \binom{b}{m-k} \right) x^m$$

(here, we renamed k and i as m and k),

we get

$$\sum_m \binom{a+b}{m} x^m = \sum_m \left(\sum_{k=0}^m \binom{a}{k} \binom{b}{m-k} \right) x^m.$$

These are equal as polynomials; thus, corresponding coefficients are equal. In other words,

$$\binom{a+b}{m} = \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{a}{k} \binom{b}{m-k} \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Apply this to $m=n$, and get (8). □

Remark: A similar argument proves the identity

$$(9) \quad \sum_{i=0}^m (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} \binom{n}{m-i} = \begin{cases} (-1)^{m/2} \binom{n}{m/2}, & \text{if } m \text{ is even;} \\ 0, & \text{if } m \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Indeed, (9) is obtained from expanding $(1-x)^n \cdot (1+x)^n = (1-x^2)^n$ (again using the binom. formula)

and comparing coefficients.

In particular, if $m=n$, then (9) simplifies to

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i}^2 = \begin{cases} (-1)^{n/2} \binom{n}{n/2}, & \text{if } n \text{ is even;} \\ 0, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

We'll see more of this method later.

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2.7. Destructive Interference & the Principle of Inclusion and Exclusion

Recall:

- For any ^{finite} sets A and B , we have $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$.
- For any ^{finite} sets A, B and C , we have

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

Generally:

Theorem 2.23 (Principle of Inclusion & Exclusion (short PIE), or the Sylvester sieve formula). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n

be finite sets.

(a) We have

$$\begin{aligned} |A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n| &= |A_1| + |A_2| + \dots + |A_n| \\ &\quad - |A_1 \cap A_2| - |A_1 \cap A_3| - \dots - |A_{n-1} \cap A_n| \\ &\quad + |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3| + |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_4| + \dots \\ &\quad - \dots \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\quad + (-1)^{n-1} |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n|. \end{aligned}$$

Or, in rigorous terms:

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right| = \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \neq \emptyset}} (-1)^{|I|-1} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right|.$$

Here, $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$ means "the intersection of all A_i with $i \in I$ "

(so $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = A_{i_1} \cap A_{i_2} \cap \dots \cap A_{i_k}$ if $I = \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k\}$).

(Latex: \bigcup, \bigcap)

Let U be a finite set that contains all A_i 's as subsets.

(b)

Then,

$$\left| U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right| = \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right|,$$

where we set $\bigcap_{i \in \emptyset} A_i = U$.

There are several proofs, e.g. [Galvis, §16] has two. -126-
 Thm. 2.24 ("destructive interference"). Let G be a finite set.

Then, $\sum_{I \subseteq G} (-1)^{|I|} = [G = \emptyset].$

Ex: If $G = \{1, 2\}$, then $\sum_{I \subseteq G} (-1)^{|I|} = (-1)^{|\emptyset|} + (-1)^{|\{1\}|} + (-1)^{|\{2\}|} + (-1)^{|\{1, 2\}|}$
 $= \cancel{1} + \cancel{(-1)} + \cancel{(-1)} + \cancel{1} = 0$
 $= [\{1, 2\} = \emptyset].$

1st proof: $\sum_{I \subseteq G} (-1)^{|I|} = \sum_{k=0}^{|G|} \binom{|G|}{k} (-1)^k$
 (since $|I|=k$ holds for exactly $\binom{|G|}{k}$ subsets I of G)
 $= \sum_{k=0}^{|G|} (-1)^k \binom{|G|}{k} = [|G|=0]$ (by Ex. 2.3)
 $= [G = \emptyset].$ □

2nd proof (outline): If $G = \emptyset$, then it is obvious.

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If $G \neq \emptyset$, then fix some $g \in G$.

Then, the $I \subseteq G$ that contain g are in bijection with the $I \subseteq G$ that don't ($I \mapsto I \setminus \{g\}$), and the addends from the former subsets cancel those from the latter. \Rightarrow The sum is 0. \square

Iverson brackets satisfies the following rules: (easy):

Prop. 2.25. (a) If statements α and β are equivalent, then $[\alpha] = [\beta]$.

(b) Any statement α satisfies $[\text{not } \alpha] = 1 - [\alpha]$.

(c) If $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$ are k statements, then

$$[\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_k] = [\alpha_1] \cdot [\alpha_2] \cdot \dots \cdot [\alpha_k].$$

Prop. 2.26 ("counting by roll-call"). Let U be a finite set. Let $S \subseteq U$.

Then, $|S| = \sum_{x \in U} [x \in S]$.

Proof. LTTR. \square

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Proof of Thm. 2.23. (b) Let $x \in U$. Let $G = \{i \in [n] \mid x \in A_i\} \subseteq [n]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} & \underbrace{\left[x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right]} \\ &= [x \in A_i \text{ for all } i \in I] \\ &= [i \in G \text{ for all } i \in I] \\ &= [I \subseteq G] \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} [I \subseteq G]$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \subseteq G}} (-1)^{|I|} \underbrace{[I \subseteq G]}_{=1} + \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \not\subseteq G}} (-1)^{|I|} \underbrace{[I \subseteq G]}_{=0} \quad (\text{since } I \not\subseteq G)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \subseteq G}} (-1)^{|I|} = \sum_{I \subseteq G} (-1)^{|I|} = [G = \emptyset]$$

↑
(since $G \subseteq [n]$)
↑
(by
Thm 2.24)

$= [\text{there exist no } i \in [n] \text{ such that } x \in A_i]$

$= [x \notin A_i \text{ for all } i \in [n]] = [x \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i]$

(10) $= [x \in U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i].$

This holds for every $x \in U$. Now,

$$\sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \underbrace{\left[\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right]}_{= \sum_{x \in U} [x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i]}$$

(by ~~Prop.~~ Prop. 2.26)

$$= \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \sum_{x \in U} [x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i]$$

$$= \sum_{x \in U} \underbrace{\sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|}}_{\stackrel{(10)}{=} [x \in U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i]} \left[x \notin \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right]$$

$$= \sum_{x \in U} [x \in U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i] = |U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i| \quad (\text{by Prop. 2.26}).$$

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This proves Thm. 2.23 (b).

(2) Let $U = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$. Then, $U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i = \emptyset$, so that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= |U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i| \stackrel{\text{part (b)}}{=} \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right| \\ &= \underbrace{(-1)^{|\emptyset|}}_{=1} \left| \bigcap_{i \in \emptyset} A_i \right| + \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \neq \emptyset}} \underbrace{(-1)^{|I|}}_{= -(-1)^{|I|-1}} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right| \end{aligned}$$

$$= |U| - \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \neq \emptyset}} (-1)^{|I|-1} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right|.$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{\substack{I \subseteq [n]; \\ I \neq \emptyset}} (-1)^{|I|-1} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right| = |U| = \left| \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right|.$$

But this proves Thm. 2.23 (2). □

Applications:

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Example 1: Recall: A derangement of a set X means a permutation f of X that has no fixed points (i.e., $\nexists x \in X$ such that $f(x) = x$).

Let D_n be the # of derangements of $[n]$. What is D_n ?

Let $U = \{\text{all permutations of } [n]\}$. Note $|U| = n!$.

For each $i \in [n]$, let $A_i = \{f \in U \mid f(i) = i\}$.

Then, $D_n = |U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i|$ (since the set of derangements of $[n]$ is $U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$)

$$\underline{\text{Thm. 2.23(b)}}$$

$$\sum_{\emptyset \neq I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right|.$$

But for any $I \subseteq [n]$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right| &= \left| \{f \in U \mid f(i) = i \text{ for all } i \in I\} \right| \\ &= \left| \{\text{permutations of } [n] \setminus I\} \right| \end{aligned}$$

$$= \underbrace{|\# [n] \setminus I|!}_{= n - |I|} = (n - |I|)!,$$

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so this becomes

$$\begin{aligned} D_n &= \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} (n - |I|)! = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k (n-k)! \binom{n}{k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)!. \end{aligned}$$

Thus;

Thm. 2.27: For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$D_n = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} (n-k)! = \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{n!}{k!}}_{= \frac{n!}{k!}} = n! \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}.$$

Rmk: Thus, $D_n/n! = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} \approx e^{-1}$ for $e = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} \approx 2.718\ldots$

It can be shown that $D_n = \text{round}(n!/e)$ when $n > 0$.

Example 2: surjections, again.

Fix $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Compute $\text{sur}(m, n) = (\# \text{of surjective maps } [m] \rightarrow [n])$.

Set $U = \{\text{maps } [m] \rightarrow [n]\}$.

For each $i \in [n]$, let $A_i = \{\text{maps } [m] \rightarrow [n] \text{ that miss } i\}$.

(We say that a map f misses i if i is not a value of f .)

Then, $\{\text{surjective maps } [m] \rightarrow [n]\} = U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$.

Thus, $\text{sur}(m, n) = |U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i|$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \xrightarrow{\text{Thm. 2.23(b)}} \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \Bigg| \begin{array}{c} \cap \\ \{i \in I\} \end{array} A_i \Bigg| \\
 &= \{\text{maps } [m] \rightarrow [n] \text{ missing all } \{i \in I\}\} \\
 &\cong \{\text{maps } [m] \rightarrow [n] \setminus I\}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \underbrace{\left\{ \text{maps } [m] \rightarrow [n] \setminus I \right\}}_{= |[n] \setminus I|^{|[m]|}} = (n - |I|)^m$$

$$= \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} (n - |I|)^m = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i (n-i)^m \binom{n}{i}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} (n-i)^m.$$

Thus:

Thm 2.28. For all $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\text{sur}(m, n) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i \binom{n}{i} (n-i)^m = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^{n-i} \underbrace{\binom{n}{n-i}}_{= \binom{n}{i}} i^m$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^{n-i} \binom{n}{i} i^m.$$

Rmk. HW3 exercise 6(2) (applied to $A_i = 1$) gives

$$\sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{n - |I|} |I|^m = \sum_{\substack{(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m) \in [n]^m \\ i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m \neq [n]}} 1 = \text{sur}(m, n).$$

This is equivalent to Thm. 2.28.

Example 3: Euler's ϕ -function.

Recall: Two integers a and b are coprime (aka relatively prime) if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Def. The function $\phi: \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (called Euler's totient function, or Euler's ~~ϕ -function~~) is defined by

$\phi(u) = (\# \text{of all } m \in [u] \text{ coprime to } u).$

Ex: $\phi(2) = |\{1, \cancel{2}\}| = 1.$

~~$\phi(4) = |\{1, \cancel{2}, \cancel{3}, \cancel{4}\}| = 2.$~~

$\phi(6) = |\{1, \cancel{2}, \cancel{3}, \cancel{4}, \cancel{5}, \cancel{6}\}| = 2.$

$$\phi(12) = |\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}| = 4.$$

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What is $\phi(n)$ in general? We need an auxiliary identity:

Prop. 2.29. Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be n numbers. Then:

$$(a) \quad \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} \prod_{i \in I} a_i = (1+a_1)(1+a_2) \cdots (1+a_n).$$

$$(b) \quad \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \prod_{i \in I} a_i = (1-a_1)(1-a_2) \cdots (1-a_n).$$

Proof. (a) Proof by example: $n=3$.

$$1 + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_1 a_2 + a_1 a_3 + a_2 a_3 + a_1 a_2 a_3 \\ = (1+a_1)(1+a_2)(1+a_3).$$

Rigorously: Induction.

(b) Apply (a) to $-a_i$ instead of a_i . \square

Let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n be the distinct primes dividing u . [-137-]

Let $U = [u]$. For each $i \in [n]$, let $A_i = \{x \in [u] \mid x \in p_i \mathbb{Z}\}$.
this means
 $p_i | x$

Then, $\{m \in [u] \text{ coprime to } u\} = U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$.

Hence, $\phi(u) = |U \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i| \stackrel{\text{Thm. 2.23(b)}}{=} \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right|.$

Since $\left| \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \right| = (\# \text{ of all } m \in [u] \text{ that are multiples of all the } p_i \text{ for all } i \in I)$
 $= (\# \text{ of all } m \in [u] \text{ that are multiples of } \prod_{i \in I} p_i)$

$$= \frac{u}{\prod_{i \in I} p_i} \quad (\text{since } \prod_{i \in I} p_i \mid u)$$

for each $I \subseteq [n]$, we can rewrite this as

$$\phi(u) = \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \frac{u}{\prod_{i \in I} p_i}$$

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$$= u \sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|} \frac{1}{\prod_{i \in I} p_i} = u \underbrace{\sum_{I \subseteq [n]} (-1)^{|I|}}_{\text{Prop. 2.29(b)}} \underbrace{\prod_{i \in I} \frac{1}{p_i}}_{\text{for } a_i = \frac{1}{p_i}} \prod_{i \in [n]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right)$$

$$= u \prod_{i \in [n]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right).$$

Thus,

Thm. 2.30. If u is a positive integer, and if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n are the distinct primes dividing u , then

$$\phi(u) = u \prod_{i \in [n]} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right).$$

2.8. The roots-of-unity filter (Introduction).

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Def. Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, ~~and $u > 0$~~ , we let

$$\binom{n}{\equiv j \pmod u} = \sum_{\substack{k \in \mathbb{Z}; \\ k \equiv j \pmod u}} \binom{n}{k}$$

$$= (\# \text{ of subsets of } [n] \text{ whose size is } \equiv j \pmod u).$$

Prop. 2.31. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then,

$$\binom{n}{\equiv 0 \pmod 2} = \frac{2^n + [n=0]}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \binom{n}{\equiv 1 \pmod 2} = \frac{2^n - [n=0]}{2}.$$

Prop. 2.32. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then,

$$\binom{n}{\equiv i \pmod 3} = \frac{2^n - (-1)^n}{3} + (-1)^n [n \equiv -i \pmod 3].$$

(HW2 ex 3(b))

What about mod 4?