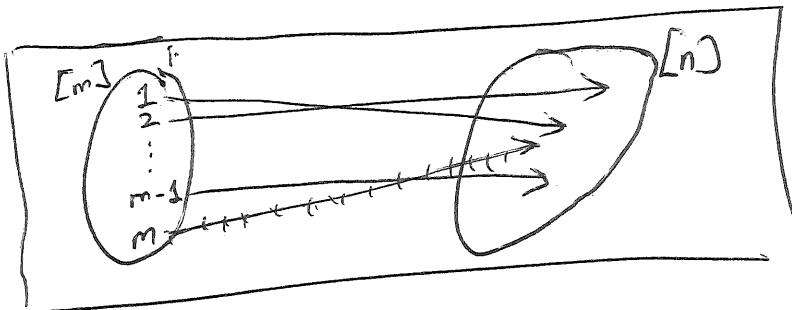


2nd approach. (continued). Recall:  $m > 0$  &  $n > 0$ .

A surjection  $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$  is red if  $f(m) = f(i) \quad \forall i < m$ ;  
green otherwise.

Thus, if a surjection  $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$  is red, then  $f|_{[m-1]}$   
is "still" a surjection  $[m-1] \rightarrow [n]$ .



On the other hand, if a surjection  $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$  is green,  
then  $f|_{[m-1]}$  has image  $\overline{[n] \setminus \{f(m)\}}$ ,  
so it can be viewed as a surjection  $\overline{[m-1]} \rightarrow \overline{[n] \setminus \{f(m)\}}$ .

This gives us an algorithm for constructing a red surjection  
 $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$ :

- first, choose  $f(m)$  (there are  $n$  choices);
- then, choose  $f(1), f(2), \dots, f(m-1)$ ; ~~these values~~  
~~should~~ In other words, choose  $f|_{[m-1]}$   
 (there are  $\text{sur}(m-1, n)$  choices).

So there are  $n \cdot \text{sur}(m-1, n)$  red surjections  $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$ .  
 We also get an algorithm for constructing a green surjection  
 $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$ :

- first, choose  $f(m)$  (there are  $n$  choices);
- then, choose  $f(1), f(2), \dots, f(m-1)$ ;

In other words, choose  $f|_{[m-1]}$

(there are  $\text{sur}(m-1, n-1)$  choices),

because  $f|_{[m-1]}$  ~~still~~ needs to be a surjection

$[m-1] \rightarrow [n] \setminus \{f(m)\}$ .

So there are  $n \cdot \text{sur}(m-1, n-1)$  green surjections  $f: [m] \rightarrow [n]$ .

Now,

$\text{sur}(m, n)$ 

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= (\# \text{ of surjections } [m] \rightarrow [n]) \\
 &= \underbrace{(\# \text{ of red surjections } [m] \rightarrow [n])}_{= n \cdot \text{sur}(m-1, n)} + \underbrace{(\# \text{ of green surjections } f: [m] \rightarrow [n])}_{= n \cdot \text{sur}(m-1, n-1)} \\
 &= n \cdot (\text{sur}(m-1, n) + \text{sur}(m-1, n-1)).
 \end{aligned}$$

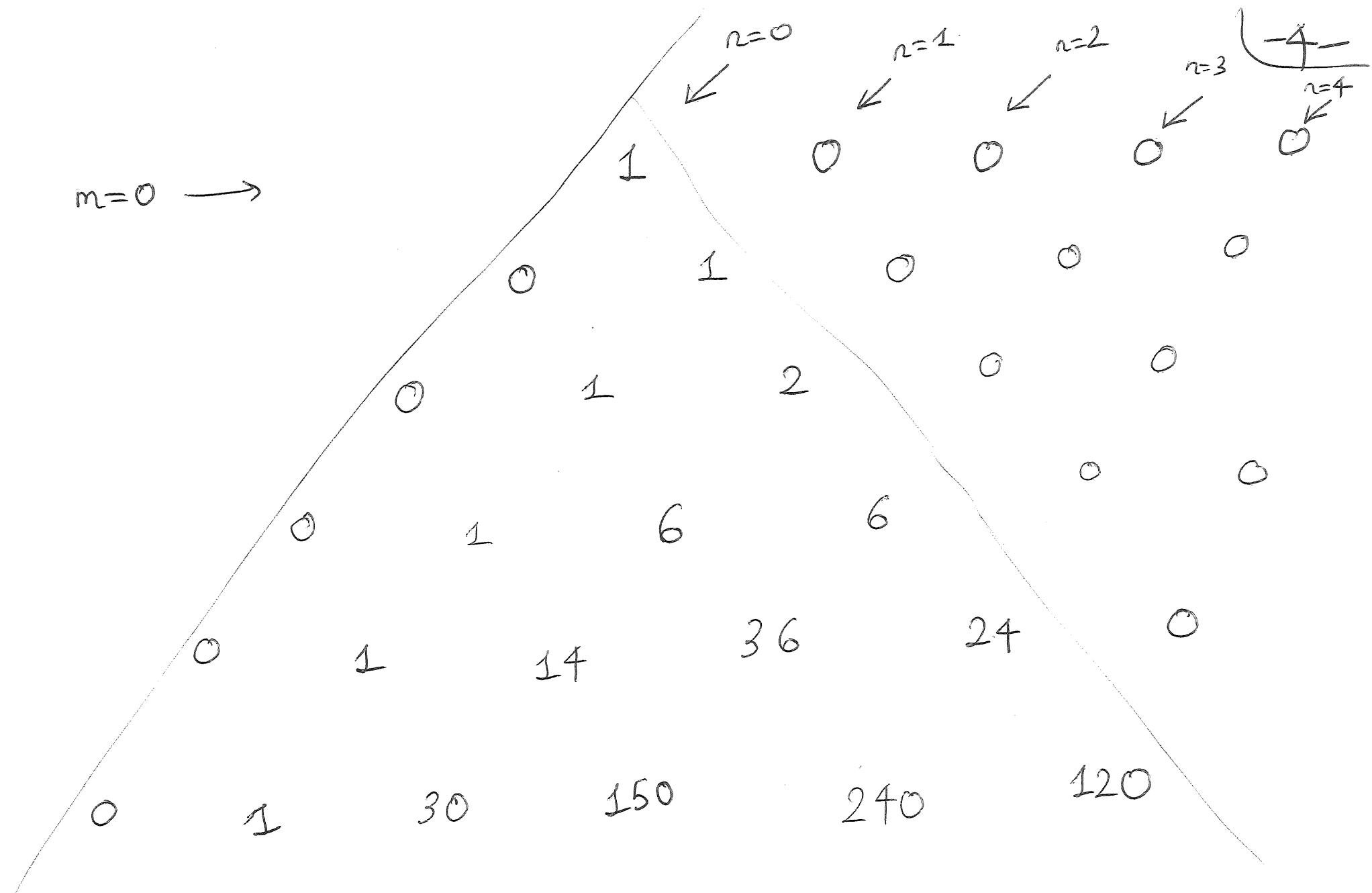
So we have proven:

Prop. 3.12. Let  $m$  and  $n$  be positive integers. Then,

$$\text{sur}(m, n) = n \cdot (\text{sur}(m-1, n) + \text{sur}(m-1, n-1)).$$

This also allows computing  $\text{sur}(m, n)$  recursively (using Prop. 3.10 (a) and (d)). We get the following analogue of Pascal's triangle:

$m=0 \rightarrow$



Cor. 3.13. (a)  $\text{sur}(n, n) = n!$   $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

(b)  $\text{sur}(m, n)$  is a multiple of  $n!$   $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \& m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Pf. (b) Easy by induction.

(a) Either by induction, or bijectively:

The surjections  $[n] \rightarrow [n]$  are the permutations of  $[n]$  (by the pigeonhole principle for surjections), so their number is  $n!$ .  $\square$

Rmk.  $\text{sur}(m, n)/n!$  is denoted  $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} m \\ n \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ , and is called a Stirling number of the 2nd kind.

Here is the most explicit formula for  $\text{sur}(m, n)$  known:

Thm. 3.14. Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,

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

Proof. 1st proof: Use induction & one of the recursions above. (Specifically, Prop. 3.11.)

~~This~~ This is spelt out in [Fall 2017 Math 4707 HW 2 Exe 4].

2nd proof: Use the Principle of Inclusion & Exclusion. Later?  $\square$

3.3.  $1^m + 2^m + \dots + n^m$

Next goal: prove Thm. 1.11. First step:

Thm. 3.15. Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,  $k^m = \sum_{i=0}^m \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{k}{i}$ .

ways are there to choose a map  $f: [m] \rightarrow [k]$ ?

Proof. How many

1st answer:  $k^m$ .

We choose  $f$  as follows:

2nd answer: First, choose  $|f([m])|$  (this is the size of the image of  $f$ , i.e., the # of distinct values of  $f$ ),

This is an integer in  $\{0, 1, \dots, m\}$ . Call this integer  $i$ .

Then, choose  $f([m])$  (this is the SET of all values of  $f$ ).

There are  $\binom{k}{i}$  choices for this (since  $f([m])$  must be a  $i$ -element subset of  $[k]$ ).

- Finally, choose  $f(1), f(2), \dots, f(m)$ .

These must be chosen from the already determined  $i$ -element set  $f([m])$ , and must cover this set.

There are  $\text{sur}(m, i)$  choices here (since we're building a surjection from  $[m]$  to the  $i$ -element set  $f([m])$ , which is already chosen).

So the total # of ways is  $\sum_{i=0}^m \binom{k}{i} \text{sur}(m, i)$ .

Since the two answers answer the same question, we thus have  $k^m = \sum_{i=0}^m \binom{k}{i} \text{sur}(m, i)$ . □

(This was a proof by "double counting": answer a "how many" question in 2 ways, & compare the results.)

Thm. 3.16. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k^m = \sum_{i=0}^m \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{n+1}{i+1}.$$

Proof.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 & \sum_{k=0}^n k^m = \sum_{k=0}^n \underbrace{\sum_{i=0}^m \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{k}{i}}_{\text{(by Thm. 3.15)}} \\
 & = \sum_{i=0}^m \sum_{k=0}^n \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{k}{i} \\
 & = \sum_{i=0}^m \sum_{k=0}^n \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{k}{i} \\
 & \quad \text{(by Thm. 3.17 below)}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & = \sum_{i=0}^m \sum_{k=0}^n \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{k}{i} = \sum_{i=0}^m \text{sur}(m, i) \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{k}{i}}_{\binom{0}{i} + \binom{1}{i} + \dots + \binom{n}{i}} \\
 & = \binom{n+1}{i+1} \quad \text{(by Thm. 1.16, applied to } k=i)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^m \text{sur}(m, i) \binom{n+1}{i+1}.$$

□

We have interchanged two  $\sum$  signs in the above proof.

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This relied on the following fact:

Thm. 3.17 (interchanging  $\sum$  signs / discrete Fubini theorem).

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be finite sets. For any  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ , let  $a_{x,y}$  be a number. Then,

$$\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} a_{x,y} = \sum_{(x,y) \in X \times Y} a_{x,y} = \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} a_{x,y}.$$

Example: If  $X = [2]$  and  $Y = [3]$ , then this says

$$\begin{aligned} & (a_{1,1} + a_{1,2} + a_{1,3}) + (a_{2,1} + a_{2,2} + a_{2,3}) \\ &= \text{(sum of all } a_{x,y}) \\ &= (a_{1,1} + a_{2,1}) + (a_{1,2} + a_{2,2}) + (a_{1,3} + a_{2,3}). \end{aligned}$$

Idea: to sum the entries of a table,  
we can just as well sum the entries of each row  
& then sum the results,  
or do the same by column.

Remark. Thm. 3.17 is about finite sets  $X$  and  $Y$ .

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are infinite, then it may happen that

$$\sum_{x \in X} \sum_{y \in Y} a_{x,y} \neq \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} a_{x,y}$$

even if all these sums are well-defined.

Example: "serial debtor paradox":  $X = Y = \mathbb{N}$

$a_{x,y}$	$y=0$	1	2	3	4	5
$x=0$	1	-1				
1		1	-1			
2			1	-1		
3				1	-1	
4					1	...

(empty entries  
are 0's)

$$a_{x,y} = [x=y] - [x=y-1].$$

Then,  $\sum_{x \in X} \underbrace{\sum_{y \in Y} a_{x,y}}_{\text{if } y \neq 0} = \sum_{x \in X} 0 = 0,$

but  $\sum_{y \in Y} \underbrace{\sum_{x \in X} a_{x,y}}_{= [y=0]} = \sum_{y \in Y} [y=0] = 1.$

For Thm. 3.17 ~~to hold~~ without finiteness of  $X$  and  $Y$ ,  
 we need to have  $a_{x,y} = 0$  for all but finitely many pairs  
 $(x,y) \in X \times Y.$  (There are also weaker conditions.)

Proof of Thm. 1.11. Rename  $k$  as  $m.$  Thus, we must prove

$$1^m + 2^m + \dots + n^m = \sum_{i=0}^m \text{sur}(m, i) \cdot \binom{n+1}{i+1} \quad \text{for all } m > 0, n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

But this is exactly what Thm. 3.16 yields, because

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k^m = 0^m + 1^m + 2^m + \dots + n^m = 1^m + 2^m + \dots + n^m \quad (\text{since } 0^m = 0). \quad \square$$

### 3, 4. VANDERMONDE CONVOLUTION

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Thm. #3.18. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ , and  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then,

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

Rmk. The " $\sum_k$ " in Thm. 3.18 means a sum over all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Notice that  $\binom{x}{k} \binom{y}{n-k} = 0$  whenever  $k \notin \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$

(indeed,  $\binom{x}{k} = 0 \quad \forall k < 0$ , and  $\binom{y}{n-k} = 0 \quad \forall k > n$ ).

Thus, the 2nd equality in Thm. 3.18 is clear.

We'll first prove Thm. 3.18 under extra assumptions,

1st proof of Thm. 3.18 ~~for the case when  $x \in \mathbb{N}$~~

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{u}{n} &= \underbrace{\binom{u-1}{n-1}}_{= \binom{u-2}{n-2} + \binom{u-2}{n-1}} + \underbrace{\binom{u-1}{n}}_{= \binom{u-2}{n-1} + \binom{u-2}{n}} \\ &= \binom{u-2}{n-2} + \binom{u-2}{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \underbrace{\binom{u-2}{n-2}}_{=\binom{u-3}{n-3} + \binom{u-3}{n-2}} + 2 \underbrace{\binom{u-2}{n-1}}_{=\binom{u-3}{n-2} + \binom{u-3}{n-2}} + \underbrace{\binom{u-2}{n}}_{=\binom{u-3}{n-1} + \binom{u-3}{n}}$$

$$= \binom{u-3}{n-3} + 3 \binom{u-3}{n-2} + 3 \binom{u-3}{n-1} + \binom{u-3}{n}$$

$$= \binom{u-4}{n-4} + 4 \binom{u-4}{n-3} + 6 \binom{u-4}{n-2} + 4 \binom{u-4}{n-1} + \binom{u-4}{n}$$

(notice that the coefficients are  
governed by the recurrence of Pascal's triangle,  
and hence are binomial coefficients)

= ...

$$= \binom{u-v}{n-v} + \dots + \binom{v}{k} \binom{u-v}{n-k} + \dots + \binom{u-v}{n}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^v \binom{v}{k} \binom{u-v}{n-k}$$

$\forall u \in \mathbb{Q}$  and  $v \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Applying this to  $u=x+y$  and  $v=x$ , we get

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

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$$\stackrel{\circ}{=} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{x}{k} \binom{y}{n-k} \stackrel{\circ}{=} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{x}{k} \binom{y}{n-k}.$$

Here, the symbol " $\stackrel{\circ}{=}$ " means that the left hand side & the right hand side differ only in addends that are 0, and thus are equal. Thus, Thm. 3.18 is proven for  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ .  $\square$

2nd proof of Thm. 3.18 for the case when  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ .

How many ways are there to choose an  $n$ -element subset of  $\{1, 2, \dots, x\} \cup \{-1, -2, \dots, -y\}$ ?

1st answer:  $\binom{x+y}{n}$ .

2nd answer: First, decide how many elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, x\}$  our set will have. Let this number be  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ .

Then, choose these  $k$  elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, x\}$  (this ~~at most~~ offers  $\binom{x}{k}$  choices).

Then, choose the remaining  $n-k$  elements for our subset from  $\{-1, -2, \dots, -y\}$   
 (this offers  ~~$\binom{y}{n-k}$~~  choices),

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$\Rightarrow$  The answer is  $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{x}{k} \binom{y}{n-k}$ .

~~Now~~, compare the two answers ("Double counting" again!)  
 This proves Thm. 3.18 when  $x \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{N}$ .  $\square$

3rd proof for all  $x, y$ . See [detnotes, second proof of Thm. 2.27].

(It proceeds by induction on  $n$ .)

Remark. In Thm. 3.18, we can replace " $\sum_{k=0}^n$ " by " $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}$ " when  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ . (We've already seen this in the 1st proof.)

It turns out that just one extra trick suffices to make the first two proofs above yield Thm. 3.18 for ALL  $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

This is the "polynomial identity trick". We'll see this next time.

Cor. 3.19. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,

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

Proof of Cor. 3.19. Thm. 3.18 (applied to  $x=n$  &  $y=n$ ) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{2n}{n} &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{n-k} \\ &\quad \underbrace{\qquad\qquad}_{= \binom{n}{k}} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \binom{n}{k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2, \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

(by symmetry)

Rmk. There is no known formula for  $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^3$ .

However, there are such formulas for

$$\sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k}^2 \quad \text{2nd} \quad \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k}^3.$$

We'll see the first of these soon.