

Proof of Thm. 1.12: We are in one of the following cases: -1-

CASE 1: $k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

CASE 2: $k = 0$.

CASE 3: $k \notin \mathbb{N}$.

Case 3 is easy: If $k \notin \mathbb{N}$, then $k-1 \notin \mathbb{N}$, so $\binom{n-1}{k-1} = 0$, but

also $\binom{n}{k} = 0$ and $\binom{n-1}{k} = 0$, so we have to prove
 $0 = 0 + 0$.

Case 2: Assume $k=0$. Then $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{0} = \frac{\text{(empty product)}}{0!} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$,

and similarly $\binom{n-1}{k} = 1$. Also $\binom{n-1}{k-1} = \binom{n-1}{-1} = 0$.

So we must prove $1 = 0 + 1$.

Case 1: $k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, Thus,

$$\binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k} = \frac{(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-k+1)}{(k-1)!} + \frac{(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-k)}{k!}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-k+1)}{(k-1)!} \left(1 + \frac{n-k}{k}\right)$$



(since $k! = k \cdot (k-1)!$)

$$= \frac{(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{(k-1)!} \cdot \frac{n}{k}$$

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

Thm. 1.19: Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $n \geq k$. Then, \square

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

Proof.

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

\square

Proof of Thm. 1.13:

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CASE 1: $0 \leq k \leq n$.

CASE 2: $k < 0$.

CASE 3: $k > n$.

In Case 1, Thm 1.19 yields $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$

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

In Case 2: $k < 0$, so $n-k > n$. Hence, Prop 1.112 (applied to $n-k$ instead of k) yields $\binom{n}{n-k} = 0$.

But $k < 0$ yields $\binom{n}{k} = 0$. Thus, $\binom{n}{k} = 0 = \binom{n}{n-k}$.

In Case 3: similar. \square

Prop. 1.20. $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have $\binom{0}{k} = [k=0]$. -4-

Here, we are using the Inverson bracket notation:

Def. For any statement s , we let $[s]$ be the truth value of s , defined to be $\begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } s \text{ is true;} \\ 0, & \text{if } s \text{ is false.} \end{cases}$

For example, $[1+1=2] = 1$,

$[1+1=5] = 0$,

$[\text{it's currently snowing}] = 0$,

Proof of Prop. 1.20: ~~#~~ Three cases, as in Thm 1.13.

Proof of Thm 1.14: We want to use induction, but we don't have an \mathbb{N} -variable. So let's first prove the " $n \in \mathbb{N}$ " case:

Observation 1: $\binom{n}{k} \in \mathbb{N}$ whenever $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof of Observation 1: Induction on n .

Base case: $\binom{0}{k} = [k=0] \in \{0, 1\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.

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Step: Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume (as the IH = induction hypothesis) that Observation 1 holds for $n=m$. We must prove that Observation 1 holds for $n=m+1$.

Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then, Thm 1.12 says

$$\binom{m+1}{k} = \binom{(m+1)-1}{k-1} + \binom{(m+1)-1}{k}$$

$$= \underbrace{\binom{m}{k-1}}_{\in \mathbb{N}} + \underbrace{\binom{m}{k}}_{\in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{N},$$

(by IH) (by IH)

Thus, Observation 1 holds for $n=m+1$.

So Observation 1 is proven.

Now, prove Thm. 1.14 :

CASE 1: $n \geq 0$.

CASE 2: $n < 0$.

In Case 1: $n \in \mathbb{N}$, so Observation 1 yields

$$\binom{n}{k} \in \mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}.$$

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In Case 2: $n < 0$. So $n \leq -1$.

Prop. 1.11b (applied to $-n$ instead of n) yields

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

Thus, if $-n+k-1 \in \mathbb{N}$, then ~~Observation 1~~ Observation 1

yields $\binom{n}{k} = (-1)^k \underbrace{\binom{-n+k-1}{k}}_{\in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathbb{Z}.$

What if $-n+k-1 \notin \mathbb{N}$? Then, $-n+k-1 < 0$.

Add $n \leq -1$, obtain $k-1 \leq -1$, so $k < 0$,

so $\binom{n}{k} = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}.$

□

Proof of Thm. 1.15, Induction on n .

Base: If S is a 0-elt. set, then

$$\begin{aligned} & \# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \\ &= \# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } \emptyset \\ &= [k=0] = \binom{0}{k} \quad (\text{by Prop. 1.20}). \end{aligned}$$

Step: Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume (as IH) that Thm. 1.15 holds for $n=m$. We must show it holds for $n=m+1$. Let S be an $(m+1)$ -elt. set. Thus, S is nonempty. So $\exists t \in S$. Fix such a t . Now, there are two ~~kinds of sets~~ types of subsets of S :

Type 1: those that contain t .

Type 2: those that don't contain ~~t~~ t .

So

$$\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S = (\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 1})$$

$$+ (\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 2}).$$

(1)

But the subsets of S of Type 2 are the subsets of $S \setminus \{t\}$. So

$$(\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 2})$$

$$= (\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } \underbrace{S \setminus \{t\}}_{\text{an } m\text{-elt. set}}) = \binom{m}{k}.$$

What about Type 1?

Informally: The subsets of S of Type 1 with k elements "correspond to" the subsets of $S \setminus \{t\}$ with $k-1$ elements.

Formally: The map

~~S Subsets~~

$$\{k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 1}\} \rightarrow \{(k-1)\text{-elt. subsets of } S \setminus \{t\}\},$$

$$Q \mapsto Q \setminus \{t\}$$

is a bijection (its inverse is

$$\{(k-1)\text{-elt. subsets of } S \setminus \{t\}\} \rightarrow \{k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 1}\},$$

$$R \mapsto R \cup \{t\}.$$

But if X and Y are finite sets and \exists bijection from X to Y , then $|X| = |Y|$.

$$\text{Thus, } |\{k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 1}\}| \\ = |\{(k-1)\text{-elt. subsets of } S \setminus \{t\}\}|.$$

In other words,

$$(\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \text{ of Type 1}) \\ = (\# \text{ of } (k-1)\text{-elt. subsets of } \underbrace{S \setminus \{t\}}_{m\text{-elt. set}}) \stackrel{\text{IH}}{=} \binom{m}{k-1}.$$

So (1) becomes

$$\# \text{ of } k\text{-elt. subsets of } S \\ = \binom{m}{k-1} + \binom{m}{k} \stackrel{\substack{\text{Thm 1.12} \\ (\text{applied to } n=m+1)}}{=} \binom{m+1}{k}.$$

Thus, Thm 1.15 holds for $n=m+1$.

This completes the step. \square

Proof of Thm. 1.6,
I will rewrite

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k} \quad \text{as} \quad \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k},$$

(that is, a sum over all integers k).

Why is this infinite sum well-defined?

Because only finitely many of its addends are $\neq 0$.

For example, if $n=3$, it has the form

$$\dots + 0 + 0 + 0 + x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3 + 0 + 0 + 0 + \dots$$

An infinite sum that has only finitely many nonzero terms is always well-defined. Its value is obtained by discarding the 0's.

Since $\binom{n}{k} = 0$ whenever $k \notin \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$, we ~~can't~~ thus see that $\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$ is well-defined & equals $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$.

So ~~we~~ it remains to prove

$$(2) \quad (x+y)^n = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}.$$

Now we'll prove this by induction:

Base: easy.

Step: Assume (2) holds for $n=m$ (where $m \in \mathbb{N}$ is fixed),
Must prove (2) holds for $n=m+1$.

We have

$$\begin{aligned}(x+y)^{m+1} &= (\cancel{x}\cancel{y})^m (x+y) \\&= \underbrace{\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m-k} \\&\quad (\text{by IH})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}&= \left(\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m-k} \right) (x+y) \\&= \left(\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m-k} \right) \cdot x + \left(\sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m-k} \right) \cdot y \\&= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^{k+1} y^{m-k} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m-k+1}\end{aligned}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k-1} x^{(k-1)+1} y^{m-(k-1)} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m-k+1}$$

(here, we substituted $k-1$ for k
in the 1st sum)

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k-1} x^k y^{m+1-k} + \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m}{k} x^k y^{m+1-k}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \left(\binom{m}{k-1} + \binom{m}{k} \right) x^k y^{m+1-k}$$

$= \binom{m+1}{k}$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \binom{m+1}{k} x^k y^{m+1-k}.$$

Thus, (2) holds for $n = m+1$.

□

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(See [dnotes, §2.1] for a ~~more~~ proof without ~~the~~ "infinite sums".)

The proof of ~~Prop.~~^{Thm.} 1.16 is an exercise in induction.

The proof of Prop. 1.17 is an exercise on HW1.

■

1.4. Counting

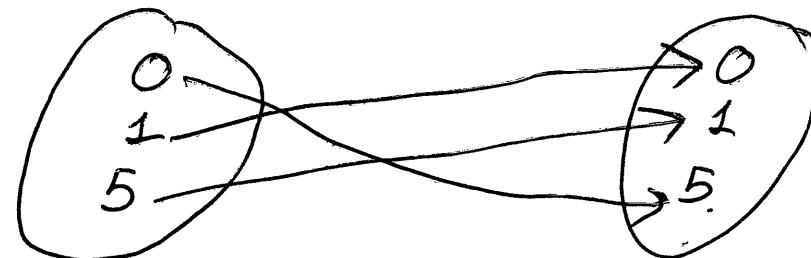
Counting := enumeration := finding sizes of finite sets.

E.g., what we have done in Thm. 1.6 & Thm. 1.15.

Much more can be done. Some examples:

Def. A permutation of a set X is a bijection $X \rightarrow X$.

For example,



is a permutation
of $\{0, 1, 5\}$.

Thm 1.21. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let X be an n -elt. set,

Then, (# of permutations of X) = $n!$.

(~~Proof~~ (Proof will be given later.)

Def. A derangement of a set X means a permutation α of X such that $\alpha(x) \neq x \quad \forall x \in X$.

How many derangements does an n -elt. set have?

For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $[n]$ be the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Def. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $[n]$ be the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Instead of studying an arbitrary n -elt. set X , it suffices to study $[n]$:

Lem. 1.22. Let X be any n -elt. set. Then,

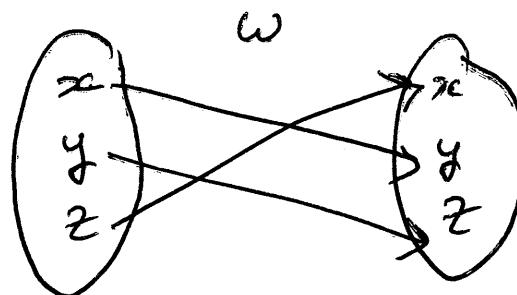
(# of derangements of X) = (# of derangements of $[n]$),

Proof. Fix a bijection $\phi: X \rightarrow [n]$. (It exists, since X has n elts.) Now, any derangement of X can be

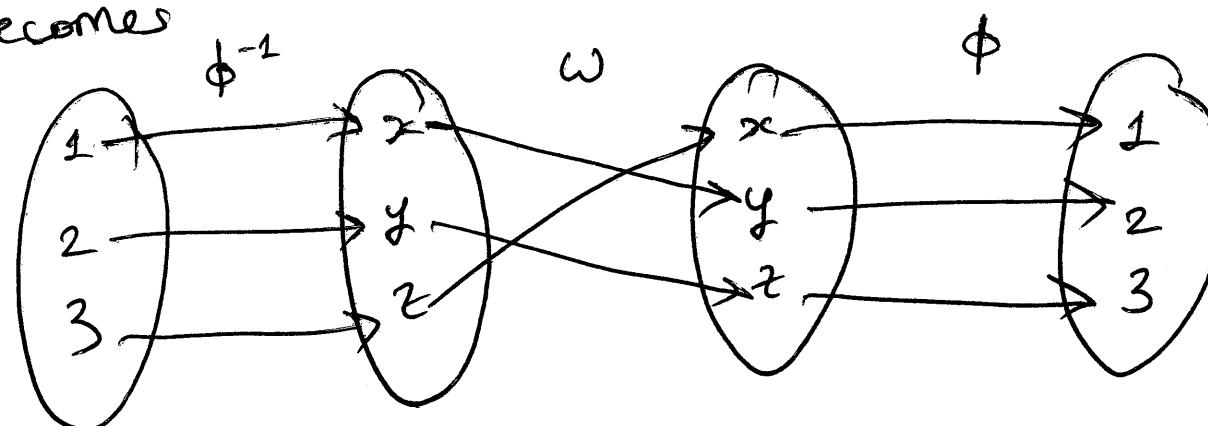
transformed into 2 derangements of $[n]$

by "relabeling" the elements of X as $1, 2, \dots, n$. using ϕ .

For example, the derangement



becomes



$$\phi \circ \omega \circ \phi^{-1}$$

So, formally,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \{\text{derangements of } X\} & \xrightarrow{\omega} & \{\text{derangements of } [n]\}, \\ \omega & \mapsto & \phi \circ \omega \circ \phi^{-1} \end{array}$$

is a bijection (its inverse being

$\{\text{derangements of } [n]\} \rightarrow \{\text{derangements of } X\}$,
 $\alpha \mapsto \phi^{-1} \circ \alpha \circ \phi$.

Thus, $\#(\text{derangements of } X) = \#(\text{derangements of } [n])$, \square

So it suffices to count derangements of $[n]$.

Def. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $D_n = \#(\text{derangements of } [n])$.

~~Def.~~ Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The one-line notation of a permutation α of $[n]$ is the n -tuple $(\alpha(1), \alpha(2), \dots, \alpha(n))$.

Ex: The permutations of $[3]$ are

$(1, 2, 3)$, $(1, 3, 2)$, $(2, 1, 3)$,

$(2, 3, 1)$

$(3, 1, 2)$, $(3, 2, 1)$.

Only $(2, 3, 1)$ and $(3, 1, 2)$ are derangements of $[3]$.
 Thus $D_3 = 2$.

Ex:

$D_0 = 1$ (since $\text{id}: \emptyset \rightarrow \emptyset$ is a derangement),

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$D_1 = 0$ (since $\text{id}: [1] \rightarrow [1]$ is NOT a derangement).

$$D_2 = 1,$$

$$D_3 = 2,$$

$$D_4 = 9.$$

Thm. 1.20. (a) $D_n = (n-1)(D_{n-1} + D_{n-2}) \quad \forall n \geq 2.$

(b) $D_n = nD_{n-1} + (-1)^n \quad \forall n \geq 1.$

(c) $n! = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} D_k \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$

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

(e) $D_n = \text{round}\left(\frac{n!}{e}\right) \quad \forall n \geq 1. \quad (\text{where } e \approx 2.718\ldots)$
 $= \left\lfloor \frac{n!}{e} + \frac{1}{2} \right\rfloor$