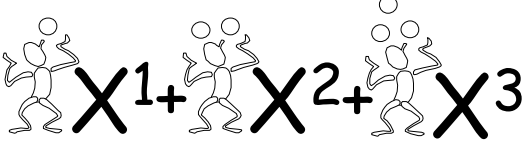



Great Theoretical Ideas In Computer Science			
John Lafferty		CS 15-251	Fall 2005
Lecture 8	Sept 22, 2005	Carnegie Mellon University	

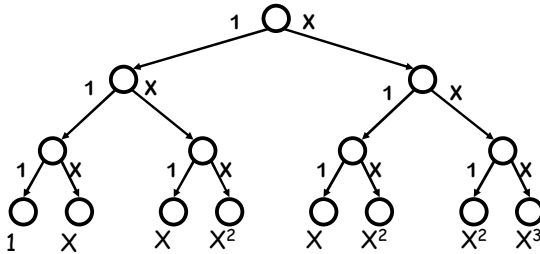
Counting III: Pascal's Triangle,  
Polynomials, and Vector Programs



Last time, we saw that  
**Polynomials Count!**



Choice tree for terms of  $(1+X)^3$



Combine like terms to get  $1 + 3X + 3X^2 + X^3$

The Binomial Formula

$$(1+X)^n = \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1}X + \binom{n}{2}X^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{k}X^k + \dots + \binom{n}{n}X^n$$

Binomial Coefficients

binomial expression

The Binomial Formula

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

One polynomial,  
two representations

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

“Product form” or  
“Generating form”

“Additive form” or  
“Expanded form”

What is the coefficient of EMSTY in the expansion of  $(E + M + S + T + Y)^5$ ?

5!

What is the coefficient of EMS<sup>3</sup>TY in the expansion of  $(E + M + S + T + Y)^7$ ?

The number of ways to rearrange the letters in the word SYSTEMS.

What is the coefficient of BA<sup>3</sup>N<sup>2</sup> in the expansion of  $(B + A + N)^6$ ?

The number of ways to rearrange the letters in the word BANANA.

What is the coefficient of  $X_1^{r_1} X_2^{r_2} X_3^{r_3} \dots X_k^{r_k}$  in the expansion of  $(X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots + X_k)^n$ ?

$\frac{n!}{r_1! r_2! r_3! \dots r_k!}$

### Multinomial Coefficients

$$\binom{n}{r_1; r_2; \dots; r_k} \equiv \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_k \neq n \\ \frac{n!}{r_1! r_2! \dots r_k!} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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

### The Multinomial Formula

$$(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_k)^n = \sum_{\substack{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_k \\ \sum r_i = n}} \binom{n}{r_1; r_2; \dots; r_k} X_1^{r_1} X_2^{r_2} X_3^{r_3} \dots X_k^{r_k}$$

## Power Series Representation

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

“Closed form” or “Generating form”

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} \cdot x^k$$

“Power series” (“Taylor series”) expansion

Since  $\binom{n}{k} = 0$  if  $k > n$

By playing these two representations against each other we obtain a new representation of a previous insight:

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

Let  $x=1$ .

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

The number of subsets of an  $n$ -element set

By varying  $x$ , we can discover new identities

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

Let  $x=-1$ .

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

Equivalently,

$$\sum_{k \text{ even}} \binom{n}{k} = \sum_{k \text{ odd}} \binom{n}{k} = 2^{n-1}$$

The number of even-sized subsets of an  $n$  element set is the same as the number of odd-sized subsets.

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

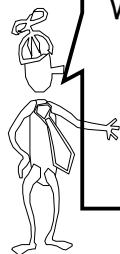
Let  $x=-1$ .

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

Equivalently,

$$\sum_{k \text{ even}} \binom{n}{k} = \sum_{k \text{ odd}} \binom{n}{k} = 2^{n-1}$$

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



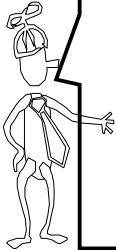
We could discover new identities by substituting in different numbers for  $X$ . One cool idea is to try complex roots of unity, however, the lecture is going in another direction.

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



Proofs that work by manipulating algebraic forms are called “algebraic” arguments. Proofs that build a 1-1 onto correspondence to count are called “combinatorial” arguments.

$$\sum_{k \text{ even}} \binom{n}{k} = \sum_{k \text{ odd}} \binom{n}{k} = 2^{n-1}$$



Let  $O_n$  be the set of binary strings of length  $n$  with an odd number of ones.

Let  $E_n$  be the set of binary strings of length  $n$  with an even number of ones.

We gave an algebraic proof that

$$|O_n| = |E_n|$$

## A Combinatorial Proof

Let  $O_n$  be the set of binary strings of length  $n$  with an odd number of ones.

Let  $E_n$  be the set of binary strings of length  $n$  with an even number of ones.

A combinatorial proof must construct a one-to-one correspondence between  $O_n$  and  $E_n$

## An attempt at a correspondence

Let  $f_n$  be the function that takes an  $n$ -bit string and flips all its bits.

$f_n$  is clearly a one-to-one and onto function

...but do even  $n$  work? In  $f_6$  we have

for odd  $n$ . E.g. in  $f_7$  we have

000000 à 1101100

110011 à 001100

101010 à 010101

1001101 à 0110010

Uh oh. Complementing maps evens to evens!

## A correspondence that works for all $n$

Let  $f_n$  be the function that takes an  $n$ -bit string and flips only *the first bit*. For example,

0010011 à 1010011

1001101 à 0001101

110011 à 010011

101010 à 001010

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



The binomial coefficients have so many representations that many fundamental mathematical identities emerge...

## The Binomial Formula

$$(1+X)^0 = 1$$

$$(1+X)^1 = 1 + 1X$$

$$(1+X)^2 = 1 + 2X + 1X^2$$

$$(1+X)^3 = 1 + 3X + 3X^2 + 1X^3$$

$$(1+X)^4 = 1 + 4X + 6X^2 + 4X^3 + 1X^4$$

**Pascal's Triangle:**  
 $n^{\text{th}}$  row are the coefficients of  $(1+X)^n$

$(1+X)^0 = 1$   
 $(1+X)^1 = 1 + 1X$   
 $(1+X)^2 = 1 + 2X + 1X^2$   
 $(1+X)^3 = 1 + 3X + 3X^2 + 1X^3$   
 $(1+X)^4 = 1 + 4X + 6X^2 + 4X^3 + 1X^4$


**$n^{\text{th}}$  Row Of Pascal's Triangle:**

$(1+X)^0 = 1$   
 $(1+X)^1 = 1 + 1X$   
 $(1+X)^2 = 1 + 2X + 1X^2$   
 $(1+X)^3 = 1 + 3X + 3X^2 + 1X^3$   
 $(1+X)^4 = 1 + 4X + 6X^2 + 4X^3 + 1X^4$

**Inductive definition of kth entry of nth row:**  
 $\text{Pascal}(n,0) = \text{Pascal}(n,n) = 1;$   
 $\text{Pascal}(n,k) = \text{Pascal}(n-1,k-1) + \text{Pascal}(n-1,k)$

$(1+X)^0 = 1$   
 $(1+X)^1 = 1 + 1X$   
 $(1+X)^2 = 1 + 2X + 1X^2$   
 $(1+X)^3 = 1 + 3X + 3X^2 + 1X^3$   
 $(1+X)^4 = 1 + 4X + 6X^2 + 4X^3 + 1X^4$

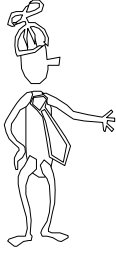
**"Pascal's Triangle"**



$\binom{0}{0} = 1$   
 $\binom{1}{0} = 1$     $\binom{1}{1} = 1$   
 $\binom{2}{0} = 1$     $\binom{2}{1} = 2$     $\binom{2}{2} = 1$   
 $\binom{3}{0} = 1$     $\binom{3}{1} = 3$     $\binom{3}{2} = 3$     $\binom{3}{3} = 1$

**Brahmagupta, 628**  
**Al-Karaji, Baghdad 953-1029**  
 Yanghui, 1261, Chu Shin-Chieh 1303  
 The Precious Mirror of the Four Elements  
 ... Known in Europe by 1529  
 Blaise Pascal 1654

**Pascal's Triangle**



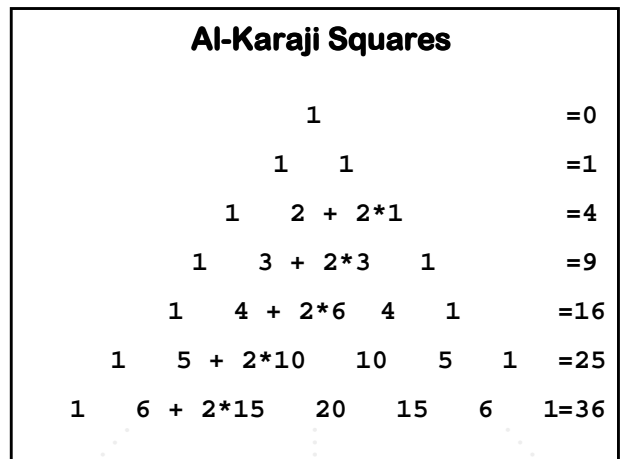
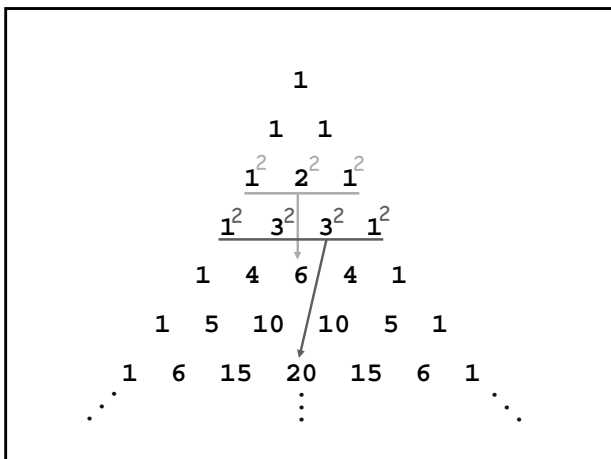
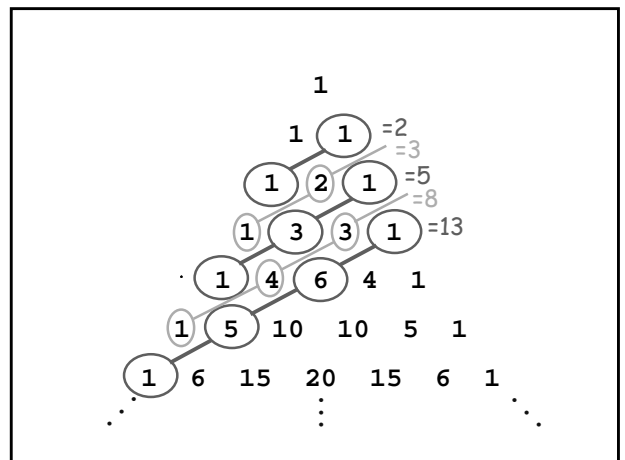
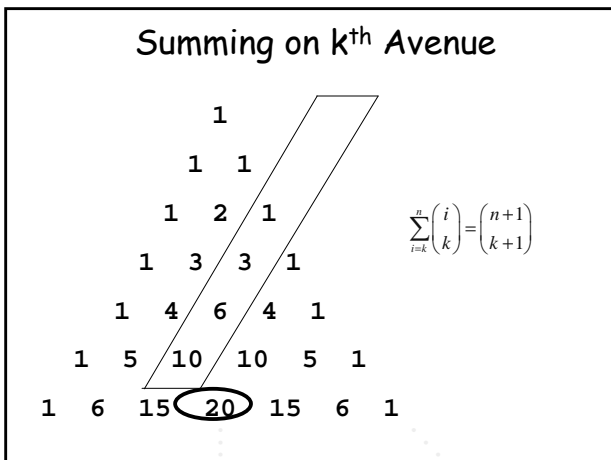
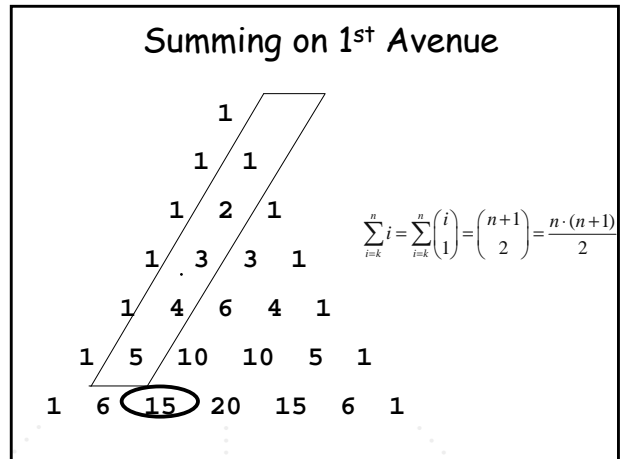
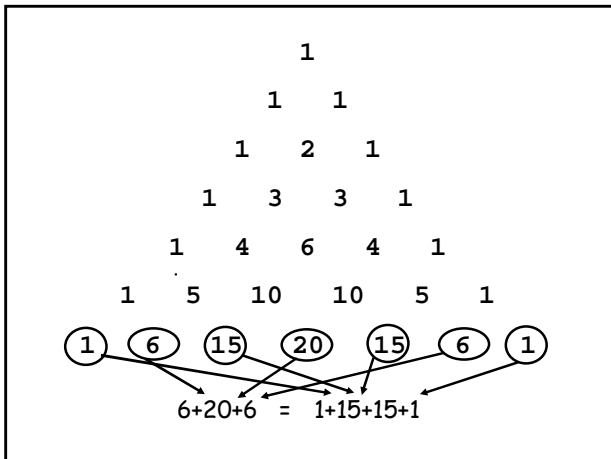
1  
 1 1  
 1 2 1  
 1 3 3 1  
 1 4 6 4 1  
 1 5 10 10 5 1  
 1 6 15 20 15 6 1

"It is extraordinary how fertile in properties the triangle is. Everyone can try his hand."

**Summing The Rows**

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

1 = 1  
 1 + 1 = 2  
 1 + 2 + 1 = 4  
 1 + 3 + 3 + 1 = 8  
 1 + 4 + 6 + 4 + 1 = 16  
 1 + 5 + 10 + 10 + 5 + 1 = 32  
 1 + 6 + 15 + 20 + 15 + 6 + 1 = 64



### Al-Karaji Squares

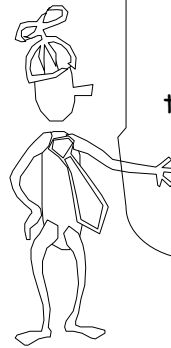
$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1 & & =0 \\
 1 & 1 & =1 \\
 1 & 2 + 2*1 & =4 \\
 1 & 3 + 2*3 & 1 & =9 \\
 1 & 4 + 2*6 & 4 & 1 & =16 \\
 1 & 5 + 2*10 & 10 & 5 & 1 & =25 \\
 1 & 6 + 2*15 & 20 & 15 & 6 & 1=36
 \end{array}$$

### Application (Al-Karaji):

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=0}^n i^2 &= 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 \\
 &= (1 \cdot 0 + 1) + (2 \cdot 1 + 2) + (3 \cdot 2 + 3) + \dots + (n(n-1) + n) \\
 &= 1 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 2 + \dots + n(n-1) + \sum_{i=1}^n i \\
 &= 2 \left[ \binom{2}{2} + \binom{3}{2} + \binom{4}{2} + \binom{5}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{2} \right] + \binom{n+1}{2} \\
 &= 2 \binom{n+1}{3} + \binom{n+1}{2} = \frac{(2n+1)(n+1)n}{6}
 \end{aligned}$$

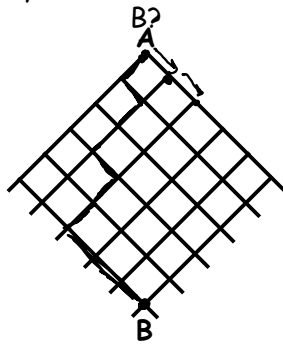
### Al-Karaji Squares

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 1 & & =0 \\
 1 & 1 & =1 \\
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 1 & 6 + 2*15 & 20 & 15 & 6 & 1=36
 \end{array}$$



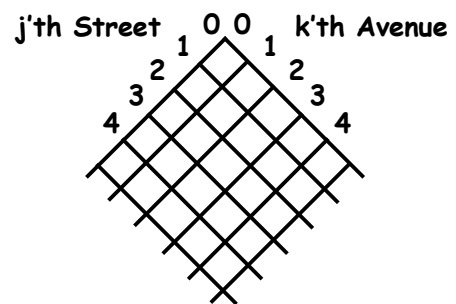
All these properties can be proved inductively and algebraically. We will give *combinatorial* proofs using the Manhattan block walking representation of binomial coefficients.

How many shortest routes from A to

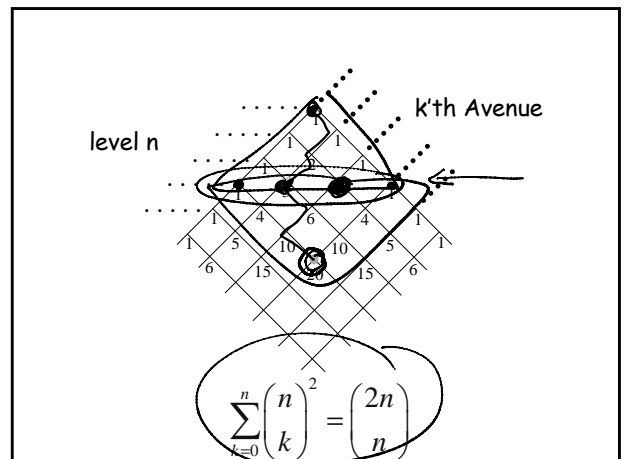
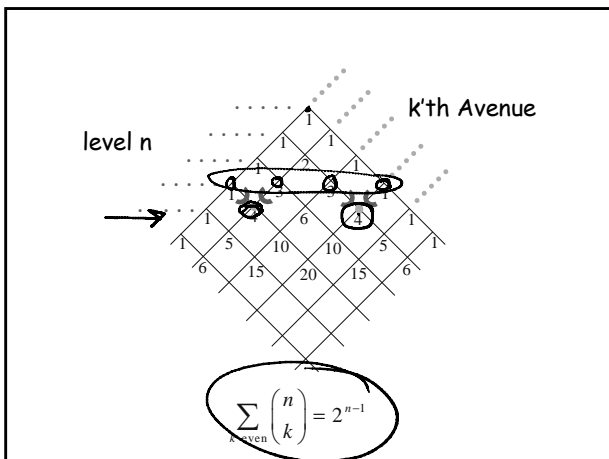
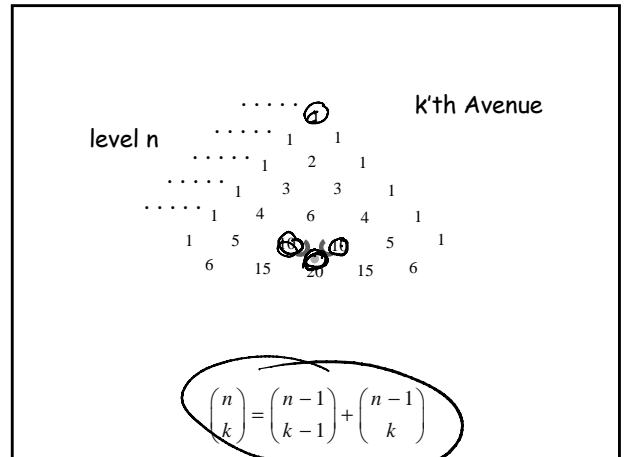
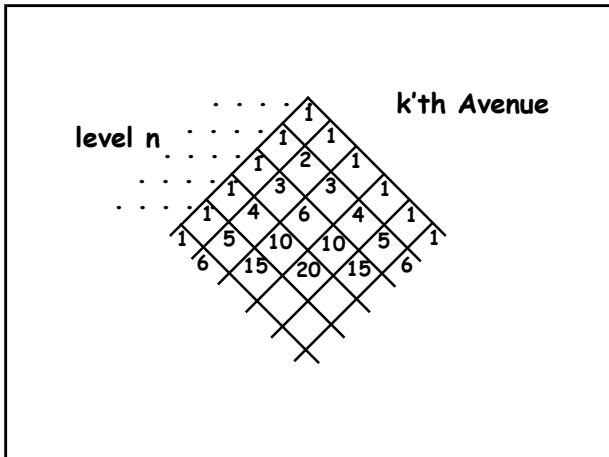
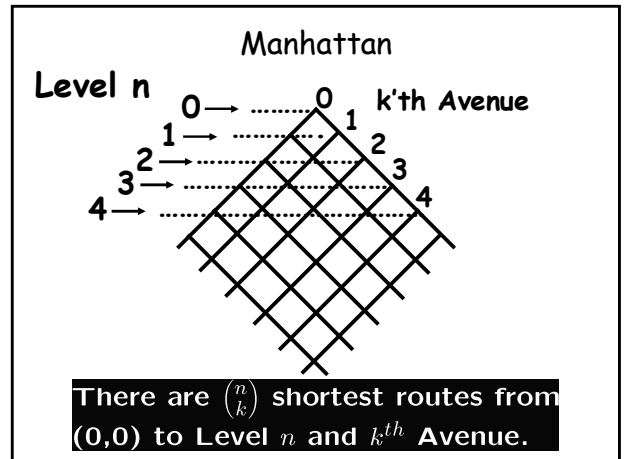
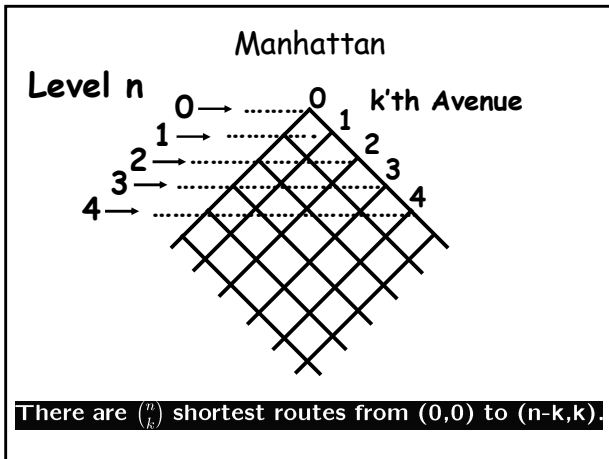


$$\binom{10}{5}$$

Manhattan



There are  $\binom{j+k}{k}$  shortest routes from (0,0) to (j,k).



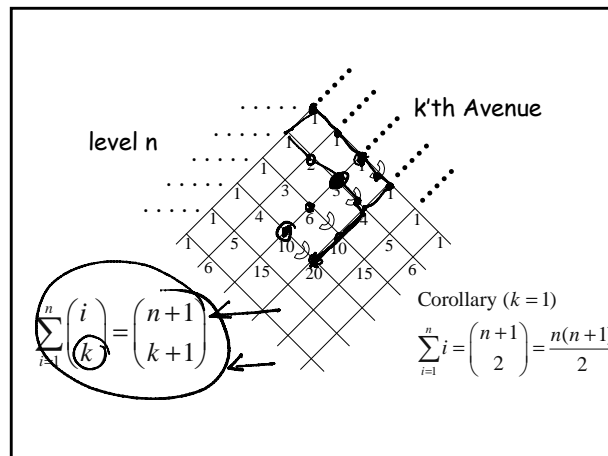


By convention:

$$0! = 1 \quad (\text{empty product} = 1)$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = 1 \quad \text{if } k = 0$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = 0 \quad \text{if } k < 0 \text{ or } k > n$$



### Al-Karaji Squares

		1			=0			
		1	1		=1			
		1	2 + 2*1		=4			
		1	3 + 2*3	1	=9			
		1	4 + 2*6	4	1	=16		
		1	5 + 2*10	10	5	1	=25	
		1	6 + 2*15	20	15	6	1	=36

Application (Al-Karaji):

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Application (Al-Karaji):

$$\sum_{i=0}^n i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2$$

$$= (1 \cdot 0 + 1) + (2 \cdot 1 + 2) + (3 \cdot 2 + 3) + \dots + (n(n-1) + n)$$

$$= 1 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 2 + \dots + n(n-1) + \sum_{i=1}^n i$$

$$= 2 \left[ \binom{2}{2} + \binom{3}{2} + \binom{4}{2} + \binom{5}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{2} \right] + \binom{n+1}{2}$$

$$= 2 \left[ \binom{n+1}{3} + \binom{n+1}{2} \right] = \frac{(2n+1)(n+1)n}{6}$$

### Vector Programs

Let's define a (parallel) programming language called VECTOR that operates on possibly infinite vectors of numbers. Each variable  $V \rightarrow$  can be thought of as:

$\langle *, *, *, *, *, *, \dots \rangle$

0 1 2 3 4 5 .....

### Vector Programs

Let  $k$  stand for a scalar constant  
 $\langle k \rangle$  will stand for the vector  $\langle k, 0, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

$\langle 0 \rangle = \langle 0, 0, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

$\langle 1 \rangle = \langle 1, 0, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow + T \rightarrow$  means to add the vectors position-wise.

$\langle 4, 2, 3, \dots \rangle + \langle 5, 1, 1, \dots \rangle = \langle 9, 3, 4, \dots \rangle$

### Vector Programs

$RIGHT(V \rightarrow)$  means to shift every number in  $V \rightarrow$  one position to the right and to place a 0 in position 0.

$RIGHT(\langle 1, 2, 3, \dots \rangle) = \langle 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \rangle$

### Vector Programs

Example:

Store

$V \rightarrow := \langle 6 \rangle;$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 6, 0, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow := RIGHT(V \rightarrow) + \langle 42 \rangle;$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 42, 6, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow := RIGHT(V \rightarrow) + \langle 2 \rangle;$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 2, 42, 6, 0, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow := RIGHT(V \rightarrow) + \langle 13 \rangle;$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 13, 2, 42, 6, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 13, 2, 42, 6, 0, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

### Vector Programs

Example:

Store

$V \rightarrow := \langle 1 \rangle;$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 1, 0, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

Loop  $n$  times:

$V \rightarrow = \langle 1, 1, 0, 0, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow := V \rightarrow + RIGHT(V \rightarrow);$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 1, 2, 1, 0, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow = \langle 1, 3, 3, 1, \dots \rangle$

$V \rightarrow = n^{\text{th}}$  row of Pascal's triangle.



Vector programs can be implemented by polynomials!

### Programs -----> Polynomials

The vector  $V \rightarrow = \langle a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots \rangle$  will be represented by the polynomial:

$$P_V = \sum_{i=0}^{i=\infty} a_i X^i$$

### Formal Power Series

The vector  $V \rightarrow = \langle a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots \rangle$  will be represented by the formal power series:

$$P_V = \sum_{i=0}^{i=\infty} a_i X^i$$

$$V \rightarrow = \langle a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots \rangle$$

$$P_V = \sum_{i=0}^{i=\infty} a_i X^i$$

$\langle 0 \rangle$  is represented by 0  
 $\langle k \rangle$  is represented by k

$V \rightarrow + T \rightarrow$  is represented by  $(P_V + P_T)$

$\text{RIGHT}(V \rightarrow)$  is represented by  $(X P_V)$

### Vector Programs

Example:

$V \rightarrow := \langle 1 \rangle;$   $P_V := 1;$

Loop n times:

$V \rightarrow := V \rightarrow + \text{RIGHT}(V \rightarrow);$   $P_V := P_V + X P_V;$

$V \rightarrow = n^{\text{th}}$  row of Pascal's triangle.

### Vector Programs

Example:

$V \rightarrow := \langle 1 \rangle;$   $P_V := 1;$

Loop n times:

$V \rightarrow := V \rightarrow + \text{RIGHT}(V \rightarrow);$   $P_V := P_V (1 + X);$

$V \rightarrow = n^{\text{th}}$  row of Pascal's triangle.

### Vector Programs

Example:

$V \rightarrow := \langle 1 \rangle;$

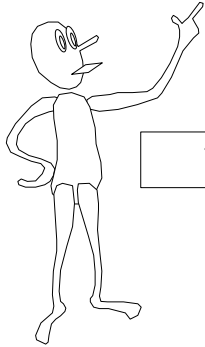
Loop n times:

$V \rightarrow := V \rightarrow + \text{RIGHT}(V \rightarrow);$

}  $P_V = (1 + X)^n$

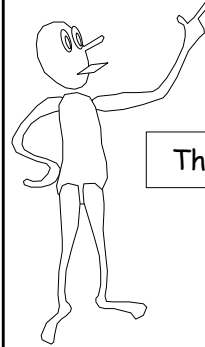
$V \rightarrow = n^{\text{th}}$  row of Pascal's triangle.

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-1} + X^n = \frac{X^{n+1} - 1}{X - 1}$$



The Geometric Series

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^n + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - X}$$

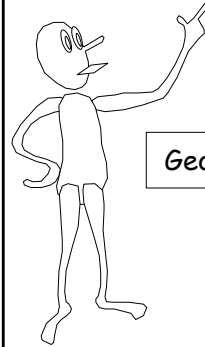


The Infinite Geometric Series

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^n + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - X}$$

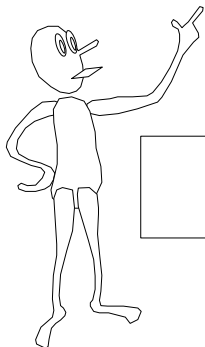


$$1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + a^3X^3 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - aX}$$



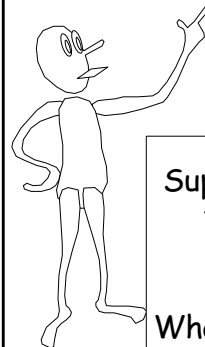
Geometric Series (Linear Form)

$$(1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots) (1 + bX^1 + b^2X^2 + \dots + b^nX^n + \dots) = \frac{1}{(1 - aX)(1 - bX)}$$



Geometric Series  
(Quadratic Form)

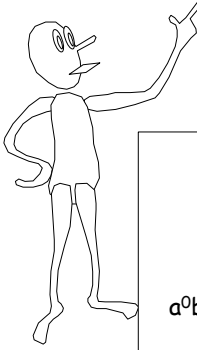
$$(1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots) (1 + bX^1 + b^2X^2 + \dots + b^nX^n + \dots) = 1 + c_1X^1 + \dots + c_kX^k + \dots$$



Suppose we multiply this out  
to get a single, infinite  
polynomial.

What is an expression for  $C_n$ ?

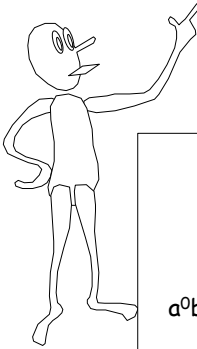
$$(1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots) (1 + bX^1 + b^2X^2 + \dots + b^nX^n + \dots) = 1 + c_1X^1 + \dots + c_kX^k + \dots$$

$$(1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots) (1 + bX^1 + b^2X^2 + \dots + b^nX^n + \dots) = 1 + c_1X^1 + \dots + c_kX^k + \dots$$


if  $a \neq b$  then

$$c_n = \frac{a^{n+1} - b^{n+1}}{a - b}$$

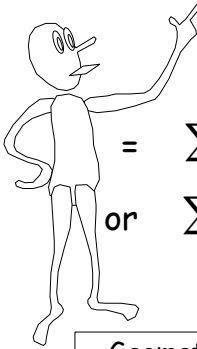
$$a^0b^n + a^1b^{n-1} + \dots + a^{n-1}b^1 + a^n b^0$$

$$(1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots) (1 + bX^1 + b^2X^2 + \dots + b^nX^n + \dots) = 1 + c_1X^1 + \dots + c_kX^k + \dots$$


If  $a = b$  then

$$c_n = (n+1)(a^n)$$

$$a^0b^n + a^1b^{n-1} + \dots + a^{n-1}b^1 + a^n b^0$$

$$(1 + aX^1 + a^2X^2 + \dots + a^nX^n + \dots) (1 + bX^1 + b^2X^2 + \dots + b^nX^n + \dots) = \frac{1}{(1 - aX)(1 - bX)}$$



$$= \sum_{n=0..∞} \frac{a^{n+1} - b^{n+1}}{a - b} X^n$$

or

$$\sum_{n=0..∞} (n+1)a^n X^n \text{ when } a=b$$

Geometric Series (Quadratic Form)

Another way to derive this:



- Polynomials count
- Binomial formula
- Multinomial coefficients
- Combinatorial proofs of binomial identities
- Vector programs
- Geometric series

Study Bee