

Counting

K. Subramani¹

¹ Lane Department of Computer Science and Electrical Engineering
West Virginia University

20 January, 2011

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 The Binomial Theorem
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Outline

- 1 **Basic Principles**
 - **Multiplication Principle**
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 The Binomial Theorem
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Multiplication Principle

Principle

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there? (Include those which begin with 0)

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there? (Include those which begin with 0)

Solution

There are 10 ways to select the first digit,

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there? (Include those which begin with 0)

Solution

There are 10 ways to select the first digit, 10 ways to select the second digit,

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there? (Include those which begin with 0)

Solution

There are 10 ways to select the first digit, 10 ways to select the second digit, 10 ways to select the third digit and

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there? (Include those which begin with 0)

Solution

There are 10 ways to select the first digit, 10 ways to select the second digit, 10 ways to select the third digit and 10 ways to select the fourth digit.

Multiplication Principle

Principle

If there are n_1 possible outcomes for a first event and n_2 possible outcomes for a second event, then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ possible outcomes for the sequence of the two events.

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there? (Include those which begin with 0)

Solution

There are 10 ways to select the first digit, 10 ways to select the second digit, 10 ways to select the third digit and 10 ways to select the fourth digit. As per the multiplication principle, there are $10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 10,000$ ways to construct a 4 digit number.

Examples of the Multiplication Principle

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there, if no digit can be repeated?

Examples of the Multiplication Principle

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there, if no digit can be repeated?

Solution: $10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7 = 5040$.

Examples of the Multiplication Principle

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there, if no digit can be repeated?

Solution: $10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7 = 5040$.

Example

Let A and B denote two sets. How many elements does $A \times B$ have?

Examples of the Multiplication Principle

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there, if no digit can be repeated?

Solution: $10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7 = 5040$.

Example

Let A and B denote two sets. How many elements does $A \times B$ have?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, $|A| \times |B|$.

Outline

- 1 **Basic Principles**
 - Multiplication Principle
 - **Addition Principle**
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 The Binomial Theorem
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Addition Principle

Principle

Addition Principle

Principle

If A and B are disjoint events with n_1 and n_2 possible outcomes respectively, then the total number of possible outcomes for the event “ A or B ” is $n_1 + n_2$.

Addition Principle

Principle

If A and B are disjoint events with n_1 and n_2 possible outcomes respectively, then the total number of possible outcomes for the event “ A or B ” is $n_1 + n_2$.

Example

A customer wishes to purchase a vehicle from a dealer.

Addition Principle

Principle

If A and B are disjoint events with n_1 and n_2 possible outcomes respectively, then the total number of possible outcomes for the event “ A or B ” is $n_1 + n_2$.

Example

A customer wishes to purchase a vehicle from a dealer. The dealer has 10 trucks and 5 cars. How many choices does the customer have?

Addition Principle

Principle

If A and B are disjoint events with n_1 and n_2 possible outcomes respectively, then the total number of possible outcomes for the event “ A or B ” is $n_1 + n_2$.

Example

A customer wishes to purchase a vehicle from a dealer. The dealer has 10 trucks and 5 cars. How many choices does the customer have?

Solution: $10 + 5 = 15$.

Addition Principle

Principle

If A and B are disjoint events with n_1 and n_2 possible outcomes respectively, then the total number of possible outcomes for the event " A or B " is $n_1 + n_2$.

Example

A customer wishes to purchase a vehicle from a dealer. The dealer has 10 trucks and 5 cars. How many choices does the customer have?

Solution: $10 + 5 = 15$.

Example

Let A and B be two disjoint sets. What is $|A \cup B|$?

Addition Principle

Principle

If A and B are disjoint events with n_1 and n_2 possible outcomes respectively, then the total number of possible outcomes for the event " A or B " is $n_1 + n_2$.

Example

A customer wishes to purchase a vehicle from a dealer. The dealer has 10 trucks and 5 cars. How many choices does the customer have?

Solution: $10 + 5 = 15$.

Example

Let A and B be two disjoint sets. What is $|A \cup B|$?

Solution: By the addition principle, $|A| + |B|$.

Addition principle example

Example

Let A and B denote two finite sets; show that

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

Addition principle example

Example

Let A and B denote two finite sets; show that

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

Solution: The key observation is that $(A - B)$ and $A \cap B$ are disjoint.

Addition principle example

Example

Let A and B denote two finite sets; show that

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

Solution: The key observation is that $(A - B)$ and $A \cap B$ are disjoint. Further, the union of $(A - B)$ and $A \cap B$ is A !

Addition principle example

Example

Let A and B denote two finite sets; show that

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

Solution: The key observation is that $(A - B)$ and $A \cap B$ are disjoint. Further, the union of $(A - B)$ and $A \cap B$ is A ! Therefore, by the addition principle, $|A| = |A - B| + |A \cap B|$.

Outline

- 1 **Basic Principles**
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - **Using the Principles Together**
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 The Binomial Theorem
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$.

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$. Likewise, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 5 is 1000.

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$. Likewise, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 5 is 1000. Thus the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with a 4 or a 5 is $1000 + 1000 = 2000$, using the addition principle.

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$. Likewise, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 5 is 1000. Thus the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with a 4 or a 5 is $1000 + 1000 = 2000$, using the addition principle.

Example

How many 3 digit numbers between 100 and 999 (inclusive) are even?

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$. Likewise, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 5 is 1000. Thus the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with a 4 or a 5 is $1000 + 1000 = 2000$, using the addition principle.

Example

How many 3 digit numbers between 100 and 999 (inclusive) are even?

Solution: Every even number ends in 0, 2, 4, 6 or 8.

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$. Likewise, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 5 is 1000. Thus the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with a 4 or a 5 is $1000 + 1000 = 2000$, using the addition principle.

Example

How many 3 digit numbers between 100 and 999 (inclusive) are even?

Solution: Every even number ends in 0, 2, 4, 6 or 8. Use multiplication principle to compute the number of even numbers that end in 0, that end in 2 and so on ($9 \cdot 10 \cdot 1$).

Combining addition and multiplication principles

Example

How many 4 digit numbers begin with a 4 or a 5?

Solution: Using the multiplication principle, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 4 is $1 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 \cdot 10 = 1000$. Likewise, the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with 5 is 1000. Thus the number of 4 digit numbers which begin with a 4 or a 5 is $1000 + 1000 = 2000$, using the addition principle.

Example

How many 3 digit numbers between 100 and 999 (inclusive) are even?

Solution: Every even number ends in 0, 2, 4, 6 or 8. Use multiplication principle to compute the number of even numbers that end in 0, that end in 2 and so on ($9 \cdot 10 \cdot 1$). Use the addition principle to get the total number of even numbers (450).

One more example

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there in which at least one digit is repeated?

One more example

Example

How many 4 digit numbers are there in which at least one digit is repeated?

Solution: Find the total number of 4 digit numbers and subtract the 4 digit numbers with no repetitions!

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Solution: 7.

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Solution: 7.

Example

Show that if 51 positive integers between 11 and 100 are chosen, then one of them must divide the other.

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Solution: 7.

Example

Show that if 51 positive integers between 11 and 100 are chosen, then one of them must divide the other.

Solution: Every number can be expressed as a product of prime numbers.

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Solution: 7.

Example

Show that if 51 positive integers between 11 and 100 are chosen, then one of them must divide the other.

Solution: Every number can be expressed as a product of prime numbers.

Let n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{51} denote the chosen numbers.

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Solution: 7.

Example

Show that if 51 positive integers between 11 and 100 are chosen, then one of them must divide the other.

Solution: Every number can be expressed as a product of prime numbers.

Let n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{51} denote the chosen numbers.

Therefore, each $n_i = 2^{k_i} \cdot b_i$, where b_i is some odd number, such that $1 \leq b_i \leq 99$.

Pigeonhole Principle

Principle

If more than k items are placed in k bins, then at least one bin contains more than one item.

Example

How many times should a die be tossed before you can be certain that the same value shows up twice?

Solution: 7.

Example

Show that if 51 positive integers between 11 and 100 are chosen, then one of them must divide the other.

Solution: Every number can be expressed as a product of prime numbers.

Let n_1, n_2, \dots, n_{51} denote the chosen numbers.

Therefore, each $n_i = 2^{k_i} \cdot b_i$, where b_i is some odd number, such that $1 \leq b_i \leq 99$.

Example (contd.)

Example

But there are exactly 50 odd numbers between 1 and 99.

Example (contd.)

Example

But there are exactly 50 odd numbers between 1 and 99.
Therefore, $b_i = b_j$, for some pair (n_i, n_j) (pigeonhole principle).

Example (contd.)

Example

But there are exactly 50 odd numbers between 1 and 99.

Therefore, $b_i = b_j$, for some pair (n_i, n_j) (pigeonhole principle).

In other words, we must have $n_i = 2^{k_i} \cdot b_i$ and $n_j = 2^{k_j} \cdot b_j$.

Example (contd.)

Example

But there are exactly 50 odd numbers between 1 and 99.

Therefore, $b_i = b_j$, for some pair (n_i, n_j) (pigeonhole principle).

In other words, we must have $n_i = 2^{k_i} \cdot b_i$ and $n_j = 2^{k_j} \cdot b_j$.

Depending on whether $k_i \geq k_j$ or vice versa, one of n_i and n_j must divide the other.

Permutations

Permutations

Definition

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects.

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Computing $P(n, r)$

Using the multiplication principle,

$$P(n, r) =$$

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Computing $P(n, r)$

Using the multiplication principle,

$$P(n, r) = n$$

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Computing $P(n, r)$

Using the multiplication principle,

$$P(n, r) = n \cdot (n-1)$$

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Computing $P(n, r)$

Using the multiplication principle,

$$P(n, r) = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1)$$

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Computing $P(n, r)$

Using the multiplication principle,

$$\begin{aligned} P(n, r) &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1) \\ &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1) \cdot \frac{(n-r) \cdot (n-r-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1}{(n-r) \cdot (n-r-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1} \end{aligned}$$

Permutations

Definition

A permutation is an ordered arrangement of objects. The number of distinct permutations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $P(n, r)$.

Definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)!, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Computing $P(n, r)$

Using the multiplication principle,

$$\begin{aligned} P(n, r) &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1) \\ &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-r+1) \cdot \frac{(n-r) \cdot (n-r-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1}{(n-r) \cdot (n-r-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 1} \\ &= \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}, \quad 0 \leq r \leq n \end{aligned}$$

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210,

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1,

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1, n ,

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1, n , and $n!$.

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1, n , and $n!$.

Example

How many 3 letter words can be formed using the letters in the word “compiler”?

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1, n , and $n!$.

Example

How many 3 letter words can be formed using the letters in the word “compiler”?

Solution: $P(8, 3)$.

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1, n , and $n!$.

Example

How many 3 letter words can be formed using the letters in the word “compiler”?

Solution: $P(8, 3)$.

Example

In how many ways can a president and vice-president be chosen from a group of 20 people?

Permutations (contd.)

Example

Compute $P(7, 3)$, $P(n, 0)$, $P(n, 1)$, and $P(n, n)$.

Solution: 210, 1, n , and $n!$.

Example

How many 3 letter words can be formed using the letters in the word “compiler”?

Solution: $P(8, 3)$.

Example

In how many ways can a president and vice-president be chosen from a group of 20 people?

Solution: $P(20, 2)$.

One more example

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

One more exampe

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

Provided that the books of a subject are required to be together?

One more exampe

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

Provided that the books of a subject are required to be together?

Solution: If there is no restriction, the number of arrangements is $P(14, 14) = 14!$.

One more example

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

Provided that the books of a subject are required to be together?

Solution: If there is no restriction, the number of arrangements is $P(14, 14) = 14!$.

Now consider the case in which the books of a given subject are required to be together. First arrange the three subjects.

One more example

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

Provided that the books of a subject are required to be together?

Solution: If there is no restriction, the number of arrangements is $P(14, 14) = 14!$.

Now consider the case in which the books of a given subject are required to be together. First arrange the three subjects. This can be done in $P(3, 3) = 3!$ ways.

One more example

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

Provided that the books of a subject are required to be together?

Solution: If there is no restriction, the number of arrangements is $P(14, 14) = 14!$.

Now consider the case in which the books of a given subject are required to be together. First arrange the three subjects. This can be done in $P(3, 3) = 3!$ ways.

Corresponding to each such arrangement, the programming books can be permuted in

$P(4, 4) = 4!$ ways, the algorithms books can be permuted in $P(7, 7) = 7!$ ways and the complexity books can be permuted in $P(3, 3) = 3!$ ways.

One more example

Example

A library has 4 books on programming, 7 on algorithms and 3 on complexity. In how many ways can the books be ordered on a shelf?

Provided that the books of a subject are required to be together?

Solution: If there is no restriction, the number of arrangements is $P(14, 14) = 14!$.

Now consider the case in which the books of a given subject are required to be together. First arrange the three subjects. This can be done in $P(3, 3) = 3!$ ways.

Corresponding to each such arrangement, the programming books can be permuted in $P(4, 4) = 4!$ ways, the algorithms books can be permuted in $P(7, 7) = 7!$ ways and the complexity books can be permuted in $P(3, 3) = 3!$ ways. Using the multiplication principle, the total number of arrangements is $3! \cdot 4! \cdot 7! \cdot 3!$.

Combinations

Definition

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects.

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations.

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$,

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$, i.e., $C(n, r) = \frac{P(n, r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$, $0 \leq r \leq n$.

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$, i.e., $C(n, r) = \frac{P(n, r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$, $0 \leq r \leq n$.

Example

Compute $C(7, 3)$, $C(n, 0)$, $C(n, 1)$ and $C(n, n)$.

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$, i.e., $C(n, r) = \frac{P(n, r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$, $0 \leq r \leq n$.

Example

Compute $C(7, 3)$, $C(n, 0)$, $C(n, 1)$ and $C(n, n)$.

Solution: 35,

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$, i.e., $C(n, r) = \frac{P(n, r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$, $0 \leq r \leq n$.

Example

Compute $C(7, 3)$, $C(n, 0)$, $C(n, 1)$ and $C(n, n)$.

Solution: 35, 1,

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$, i.e., $C(n, r) = \frac{P(n, r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$, $0 \leq r \leq n$.

Example

Compute $C(7, 3)$, $C(n, 0)$, $C(n, 1)$ and $C(n, n)$.

Solution: 35, 1, n ,

Combinations

Definition

A combination is an (unordered) selection of objects. The number of distinct combinations of r distinct objects chosen from n distinct objects is denoted by $C(n, r)$.

Computing $C(n, r)$

Focus on a given combination of r objects chosen from n objects. The objects in this combination can be permuted in $r!$ different ways to get $r!$ distinct permutations. It follows that $C(n, r) \cdot r! = P(n, r)$, i.e., $C(n, r) = \frac{P(n, r)}{r!} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$, $0 \leq r \leq n$.

Example

Compute $C(7, 3)$, $C(n, 0)$, $C(n, 1)$ and $C(n, n)$.

Solution: 35, 1, n , 1.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- ① it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- ② it must contain exactly one freshman.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- 2 it must contain exactly one freshman. Solution: $C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- ① it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- ② it must contain exactly one freshman. Solution: $C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- ③ it can contain at most one freshman.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- 2 it must contain exactly one freshman. Solution: $C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- 3 it can contain at most one freshman. Solution: $C(34, 8)$

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- 2 it must contain exactly one freshman. Solution: $C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- 3 it can contain at most one freshman. Solution: $C(34, 8) + C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- 2 it must contain exactly one freshman. Solution: $C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- 3 it can contain at most one freshman. Solution: $C(34, 8) + C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- 4 it contains at least one freshman.

Combinations (examples)

Example

A committee of 8 students is to be selected from 19 freshmen and 34 sophomores. In how many ways, can this committee be formed, if

- 1 it must contain 3 freshmen and 5 sophomores. Solution: $C(19, 3) \cdot C(34, 5)$.
- 2 it must contain exactly one freshman. Solution: $C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- 3 it can contain at most one freshman. Solution: $C(34, 8) + C(19, 1) \cdot C(34, 7)$.
- 4 it contains at least one freshman. Solution: $C(53, 8) - C(34, 8)$.

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 **The Binomial Theorem**
 - **Motivation**
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Motivation

Expansions

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 =$

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 = a + b.$

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 = a + b.$

(ii) $(a + b)^2 =$

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 = a + b.$

(ii) $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 = a + b.$

(ii) $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$

(iii) $(a + b)^3 =$

Motivation

Expansions

$$(i) \ (a + b)^1 = a + b.$$

$$(ii) \ (a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$$

$$(iii) \ (a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3.$$

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 = a + b.$

(ii) $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$

(iii) $(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3.$

(iv) $(a + b)^4 = ???$

Motivation

Expansions

(i) $(a + b)^1 = a + b.$

(ii) $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2.$

(iii) $(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3.$

(iv) $(a + b)^4 = ???$

We want a general formula that permits us to write down the terms of $(a + b)^n$ without actual multiplication.

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 The Binomial Theorem
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Row 0:

$C(0, 0)$

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Row 0:

$C(0, 0)$

Row 1:

$C(1, 0)$

$C(1, 1)$

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Row 0:			$C(0, 0)$	
Row 1:		$C(1, 0)$		$C(1, 1)$
Row 2:	$C(2, 0)$		$C(2, 1)$	$C(2, 2)$

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Row 0:			$C(0, 0)$		
Row 1:			$C(1, 0)$	$C(1, 1)$	
Row 2:		$C(2, 0)$	$C(2, 1)$	$C(2, 2)$	
Row 3:	$C(3, 0)$	$C(3, 1)$	$C(3, 2)$	$C(3, 3)$	

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Row 0:			$C(0, 0)$		
Row 1:			$C(1, 0)$	$C(1, 1)$	
Row 2:		$C(2, 0)$	$C(2, 1)$	$C(2, 2)$	
Row 3:	$C(3, 0)$	$C(3, 1)$	$C(3, 2)$	$C(3, 3)$	
⋮					
⋮					
⋮					

Pascal's Triangle

The coefficient table

Consider the following table:

Row 0:				$C(0, 0)$			
Row 1:			$C(1, 0)$		$C(1, 1)$		
Row 2:		$C(2, 0)$		$C(2, 1)$		$C(2, 2)$	
Row 3:	$C(3, 0)$		$C(3, 1)$		$C(3, 2)$		$C(3, 3)$
...							
...							
...							
Row n :	$C(n, 0)$	$C(n, 1)$		$C(n, n - 1)$	$C(n, n)$

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Row 0:

1

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Row 0:	1	
Row 1:	1	1

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Row 0:		1	
Row 1:		1	1
Row 2:	1	2	1

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Row 0:			1		
Row 1:			1		1
Row 2:			1	2	1
Row 3:		1	3	3	1

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Row 0:			1		
Row 1:			1		1
Row 2:			1	2	1
Row 3:		1	3	3	1
		.			
		.			
		.			

Pascal's triangle (contd.)

The Value Table

Writing down the values of the terms gives the following table:

Row 0:			1		
Row 1:			1		1
Row 2:			1	2	1
Row 3:		1	3	3	1
...					
Row n :	1	n	...	n	1

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) = \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!}$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$\begin{aligned} C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$\begin{aligned} C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{k(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-k)(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$\begin{aligned} C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{k(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-k)(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} [k + (n-k)] \end{aligned}$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$\begin{aligned} C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{k(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-k)(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} [k + (n-k)] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$\begin{aligned} C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{k(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-k)(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} [k + (n-k)] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

Pascal's formula

Theorem

$$C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k), 1 \leq k \leq n-1.$$

Proof.

Observe that,

$$\begin{aligned} C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k) &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)![(n-1)-(k-1)]!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-1-k)!} \\ &= \frac{k(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-k)(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} [k + (n-k)] \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= C(n, k) \end{aligned}$$



Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o .

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not. Let T_1 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely included.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not. Let T_1 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely included. But this means that we have to choose $(k - 1)$ objects from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_1 = C(n - 1, k - 1)$.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not. Let T_1 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely included. But this means that we have to choose $(k - 1)$ objects from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_1 = C(n - 1, k - 1)$. Let T_2 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely excluded.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not. Let T_1 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely included. But this means that we have to choose $(k - 1)$ objects from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_1 = C(n - 1, k - 1)$. Let T_2 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely excluded. But this means that all k objects are selected from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_2 = C(n - 1, k)$.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not. Let T_1 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely included. But this means that we have to choose $(k - 1)$ objects from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_1 = C(n - 1, k - 1)$. Let T_2 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely excluded. But this means that all k objects are selected from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_2 = C(n - 1, k)$. Using the addition principle, $C(n, k) = T_1 + T_2 = C(n - 1, k - 1) + C(n - 1, k)$.

Alternative Proof

A second Proof

Observe that $C(n, k)$ represents the number of ways in which k objects can be selected from n objects. Focus on a particular object, say o . Note that each selection of k objects from the n objects, either includes o or it does not. Let T_1 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely included. But this means that we have to choose $(k - 1)$ objects from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_1 = C(n - 1, k - 1)$. Let T_2 denote the number of ways in which k objects are selected from the n objects, with o definitely excluded. But this means that all k objects are selected from the remaining $(n - 1)$ objects, i.e., $T_2 = C(n - 1, k)$. Using the addition principle, $C(n, k) = T_1 + T_2 = C(n - 1, k - 1) + C(n - 1, k)$.

Note

The above proof is called a combinatorial proof and is always preferred on account of its elegance.

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 **The Binomial Theorem**
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - **The Theorem**
 - Application

The Theorem

Theorem

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) a^{n-i} \cdot b^i, \quad \forall n \geq 0.$$

Outline

- 1 Basic Principles
 - Multiplication Principle
 - Addition Principle
 - Using the Principles Together
- 2 Pigeonhole Principle
- 3 Permutations and Combinations
- 4 The Binomial Theorem
 - Motivation
 - Pascal's Triangle
 - The Theorem
 - Application

Application

Example

Expand $(x - 3)^4$.

Application

Example

Expand $(x - 3)^4$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}(x - 3)^4 &= C(4, 0)x^4 \cdot (-3)^0 + C(4, 1)x^3 \cdot (-3)^1 + C(4, 2)x^2 \cdot (-3)^2 \\ &\quad + C(4, 3)x^1 \cdot (-3)^3 + C(4, 4)x^0 \cdot (-3)^4\end{aligned}$$

Application

Example

Expand $(x - 3)^4$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}(x - 3)^4 &= C(4, 0)x^4 \cdot (-3)^0 + C(4, 1)x^3 \cdot (-3)^1 + C(4, 2)x^2 \cdot (-3)^2 \\ &\quad + C(4, 3)x^1 \cdot (-3)^3 + C(4, 4)x^0 \cdot (-3)^4 \\ &= x^4 + 4x^3 \cdot (-3) + 6x^2 \cdot (9) + 4x \cdot (-27) + 81\end{aligned}$$

Application

Example

Expand $(x - 3)^4$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}(x - 3)^4 &= C(4, 0)x^4 \cdot (-3)^0 + C(4, 1)x^3 \cdot (-3)^1 + C(4, 2)x^2 \cdot (-3)^2 \\&\quad + C(4, 3)x^1 \cdot (-3)^3 + C(4, 4)x^0 \cdot (-3)^4 \\&= x^4 + 4x^3 \cdot (-3) + 6x^2 \cdot (9) + 4x \cdot (-27) + 81 \\&= x^4 - 12x^3 + 54x^2 - 108x + 81\end{aligned}$$

One more example

Example

Show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) = 2^n$$

One more example

Example

Show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) = 2^n$$

Proof using the binomial theorem

As per the binomial theorem,

$$(1 + x)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) 1^{n-i} \cdot x^i$$

One more example

Example

Show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) = 2^n$$

Proof using the binomial theorem

As per the binomial theorem,

$$\begin{aligned}(1+x)^n &= \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) 1^{n-i} \cdot x^i \\ &= C(n, 0) 1^n \cdot x^0 + C(n, 1) 1^{n-1} \cdot x^1 + \dots + C(n, n) 1^0 \cdot x^n\end{aligned}$$

One more example

Example

Show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) = 2^n$$

Proof using the binomial theorem

As per the binomial theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + x)^n &= \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) 1^{n-i} \cdot x^i \\ &= C(n, 0) 1^n \cdot x^0 + C(n, 1) 1^{n-1} \cdot x^1 + \dots + C(n, n) 1^0 \cdot x^n \end{aligned}$$

Substituting $x = 1$, we get,

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

One more example

Example

Show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) = 2^n$$

Proof using the binomial theorem

As per the binomial theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + x)^n &= \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) 1^{n-i} \cdot x^i \\ &= C(n, 0) 1^n \cdot x^0 + C(n, 1) 1^{n-1} \cdot x^1 + \dots + C(n, n) 1^0 \cdot x^n \end{aligned}$$

Substituting $x = 1$, we get,

$$(1 + 1)^n = C(n, 0) \cdot (1) + C(n, 1) \cdot (1) + \dots + C(n, n) \cdot (1)$$

One more example

Example

Show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) = 2^n$$

Proof using the binomial theorem

As per the binomial theorem,

$$\begin{aligned}(1+x)^n &= \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) 1^{n-i} \cdot x^i \\ &= C(n, 0) 1^n \cdot x^0 + C(n, 1) 1^{n-1} \cdot x^1 + \dots + C(n, n) 1^0 \cdot x^n\end{aligned}$$

Substituting $x = 1$, we get,

$$\begin{aligned}(1+1)^n &= C(n, 0) \cdot (1) + C(n, 1) \cdot (1) + \dots + C(n, n) \cdot (1) \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{i=0}^n C(n, i) &= 2^n\end{aligned}$$