Lecture 6

Unordered Selection, continued

Let us recall the following:

Theorem 1. *The number of ways to create a team of r things among n is "n choose r." Its numerical value is*

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

Example 1. If there are *n* people in a room, then they can shake hands
in $\binom{n}{2}$ many different ways. Indeed, the number of possible hand shakes $\tilde{\cdot}$ is the same as the number of ways we can list all pairs of people, which is clearly $\binom{n}{2}$ vertices in a "graph," then there are $\binom{n}{2}$ many different possible "edges" . Here is another, equivalent, interpretation. If there are *n* ر
مە that can be formed between distinct vertices. The reasoning is the same.

Example 2 (Recap). There are $\binom{52}{5}$ $\overline{ }$ many distinct poker hands.

Example 3 μ hasnes in poker). The number of all possible diamond hasnes
[all suits are diamonds] in a 5-card hand is $\binom{13}{5}$. This is also the number $\overline{ }$. This is also the number of heart, clubs, and spade flushes. Therefore,

$$
P(\text{flush}) = 4P(\text{diamond flumbula})
$$

$$
= 4 \times \frac{\binom{13}{5}}{\binom{52}{5}}.
$$

It is important that you check that this answer agrees with our previous solution to this very same problem (Example 4 on page 10).

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Example 4 (Pairs in poker). The number of different "pairs" [*a, a, b, c, d*] is

 \searrow choose the *a* $\times \quad \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ \tilde{c} \setminus \searrow deal the two *a*'s *x* $\begin{pmatrix} 12 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ \cdot \setminus $\overbrace{ }^{\text{the}}$ choose the *b*, *c*, and *d* \times $\frac{4^3}{103}$ deal *b, c, d*

Therefore,

$$
P(\text{pairs}) = \frac{13 \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{12}{3} \times 4^3}{\binom{52}{5}} \approx 0.42.
$$

Example 5 (Poker). Let *A* denote the event that we get two pairs $[a, a, b, b, c]$. Then,

$$
|A| = \underbrace{\binom{13}{2}}_{\text{choose } a, b} \times \underbrace{\binom{4}{2}}^2 \times \underbrace{13}_{\text{choose } c} \times \underbrace{4}_{\text{deal } c}.
$$

Therefore,

$$
P(\text{two pairs}) = \frac{\binom{13}{2} \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times 13 \times 4}{\binom{52}{5}} \approx 0.06.
$$

Example 6. How many subsets does $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ have? Assign to each element of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ a zero ["not in the subset"] or a one ["in the subset"]. Thus, the number of subsets of a set with *n* distinct elements is 2*n*.

Example *r*. Choose and fix an integer $r \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$. The number of subsets of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ that have size *r* is $\binom{n}{r}$. This, and the preceding proves *r* . This, and the preceding proves the following amusing combinatorial identity:

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{n} {n \choose j} = 2^{n}.
$$

You may need to also recall the first principle of counting.

The preceding example has a powerful generalization.

Theorem 2 (The binomial theorem). *For all integers* $n \geq 0$ *and all real numbers x and y,*

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

Remark 1. When $n = 2$, this yields the familiar algebraic identity

$$
(x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2.
$$

For $n = 3$ we obtain

$$
(x+y)^3 = {3 \choose 0} x^0 y^3 + {3 \choose 1} x^1 y^2 + {3 \choose 2} x^2 y^1 + {3 \choose 3} x^3 y^0
$$

= $y^3 + 3xy^2 + 3x^2y + x^3$.

Proof. This is obviously correct for $n = 0, 1, 2$. We use induction. Induction hypothesis: True for *n −* 1.

$$
(x + y)^n = (x + y) \cdot (x + y)^{n-1}
$$

= $(x + y) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose j} x^j y^{n-j-1}$
= $\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose j} x^{j+1} y^{n-(j+1)} + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose j} x^j y^{n-j}.$

Change variables $[k = j + 1$ for the first sum, and $k = j$ for the second] to deduce that

$$
(x+y)^n = \sum_{k=1}^n {n-1 \choose k-1} x^k y^{n-k} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} {n-1 \choose k} x^k y^{n-k}
$$

=
$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \left\{ {n-1 \choose k-1} + {n-1 \choose k} \right\} x^k y^{n-k} + x^n + y^n.
$$

But

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

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

$$
= \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k-1)!} \times \frac{n}{(n-k)k}
$$

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

$$
= \binom{n}{k}.
$$

The binomial theorem follows. \Box