

# LECTURE NOTES IN PROBABILITY THEORY

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## 1. COMBINATORIAL ANALYSIS

**Counting:** A bijection  $\phi : A \rightarrow B$  is a one-to-one (injective) and onto (surjective) mapping, where  $\phi$  is one-to-one if

$$\phi(x) = \phi(y) \Rightarrow x = y$$

and  $\phi$  is onto if for any  $b \in B$ , there is  $a \in A$  such that  $\phi(a) = b$ . Given a non-empty finite set  $S$ , the number of elements in  $S$  is denoted and defined by

$$\begin{aligned} |S| &:= \min\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{There is a one-to-one map } \phi : S \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\} \\ &:= \max\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid \text{There is an onto map } \phi : S \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}\}. \end{aligned}$$

Conventionally, we set  $|\emptyset| = 0$ . It follows from the above definition that, for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $|S| = n$  if and only if there is a bijection  $\phi : S \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . Note that two finite sets,  $S$  and  $T$ , are said to have the same number of elements (or the same cardinality) if there is a bijection  $\phi : S \rightarrow T$ .

*Example 1.1.* If  $S = A \cup B$  and  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ , then  $|S| = |A| + |B|$ . To see a proof, assume that  $|A| = m$ ,  $|B| = n$  and write  $A = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}$ ,  $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ . Set  $c_i = a_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m$  and  $c_{m+i} = b_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Then,  $S = \{c_i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n+m\}$  and  $|S| = n+m = |A| + |B|$ . An inductive argument yields the following proposition.

**Proposition 1.1.** *Let  $n \geq 2$  and  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  be mutually disjoint finite sets, that is,  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ . Then,  $|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n| = |A_1| + |A_2| + \dots + |A_n|$ .*

*Example 1.2.* Let  $A = \{(i, j) \mid 1 \leq i \leq m, 1 \leq j \leq n\}$  and  $B = \{1, 2, \dots, nm\}$ . Consider the map  $\phi : A \rightarrow B$  defined by

$$\phi(i, j) = (i-1)n + j.$$

Note that if  $\phi(i, j) = \phi(k, l)$ , that is,  $(i-1)n + j = (k-1)n + l$ , then

$$(i-k)n = l - j.$$

This implies  $n$  divides  $|l - j|$ . Since  $1 \leq j, l \leq n$ , it is clear that  $0 \leq |j - l| < n$ . Hence,  $j = l$  and  $i = k$ . This proves that  $\phi$  is one-to-one. To see that  $\phi$  is onto, let  $b \in B$  and write  $b = (i-1)n + j$  with  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . Since  $b \geq 1$ , it is clear that  $i \geq 1$ ; since  $b \leq nm$ ,  $i \leq m$ . As a result,  $\phi(i, j) = b$ . Consequently, we obtain  $|A| = |B| = nm$ . (One may also prove this identity using Proposition 1.1).

**Proposition 1.2** (The generalized basic principle of counting). *Let  $n \geq 2$ . For  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , let  $A_i$  be a finite set with  $|A_i| = m_i$  and set  $S_n = A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i, \forall 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ . Then,  $|S_n| = m_1 m_2 \dots m_n$ .*

*Proof.* We prove this theorem by mathematical induction. It has been shown that this proposition holds for  $n = 2$ . Assume that this principle holds for some integer  $n$  with  $n \geq 2$ . For the case of  $n+1$ , let  $A = A_1 \times \dots \times A_n$  and  $B = A_{n+1}$ . Clearly,  $A \times B$  and  $S_{n+1}$  have the same cardinality. By induction,  $|A| = m_1 m_2 \dots m_n$  and this implies  $|S_{n+1}| = |A| \times |B| = m_1 m_2 \dots m_{n+1}$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 1.3** (Permutation). *Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  distinct objects and  $S_n$  be the set of all permutations (arrangements) of elements in  $S$ , i.e.*

$$S_n = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) | a_i \in S \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq n, a_i \neq a_j \text{ for } i \neq j\}.$$

Then,  $|S_n| = n!$ .

**Proposition 1.4** (Combination). *Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  distinct objects and, for  $1 \leq k \leq n$ , let  $C_k$  be the set of all  $k$ -subsets (subsets with  $k$  elements) of  $S$ . Then,  $|C_k| = \binom{n}{k} := n!/[k!(n-k)!]$ , where  $0! := 1$ .*

**Corollary 1.5.** *Let  $S$  be a set of  $n$  elements and, for  $k \geq 1$ , let*

$$P_k = \{(a_1, \dots, a_k) | a_i \in S \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq k, a_i \neq a_j \text{ for } i \neq j\}.$$

Then,  $|P_k| = n!/(n-k)!$ .

*Remark 1.1.* For  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $1 \leq r < n$ ,  $\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n-1}{r-1} + \binom{n-1}{r}$ . Such an identity is known as Pascal's identity.

**Theorem 1.6** (The binomial theorem). *For  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , one has*

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

where  $0^0 := 1$ . In particular,  $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} = 2^n$ .

*Combinatorial proof.* It is clear that the binomial theorem holds if  $xy = 0$ . Consider the case of  $xy \neq 0$ . Let  $A = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) | a_i \in \{0, 1\}\}$ . It is obvious that

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A} \prod_{k=1}^n x^{a_k} y^{1-a_k} = \sum_{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A} x^{a_1 + \dots + a_n} y^{n - (a_1 + \dots + a_n)}.$$

Note that  $A$  is the disjoint union of  $C_0, \dots, C_n$ , where

$$C_k = \{(a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A | a_1 + \dots + a_n = k\}.$$

By the formula of combination,  $|C_k| = \binom{n}{k}$  and thus

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

□

*Remark 1.2.* Note that  $|C_k|$  can be also regarded as the number of ways to arrange  $n$  elements in a line, where  $k$  objects are of type I and  $n - k$  objects are of type II.

*Remark 1.3.* One may prove the binomial theorem by the mathematical induction.

The following theorem is an immediate result of the binomial theorem and should be regarded as a generalization.

**Theorem 1.7** (The multinomial theorem). *Let  $n, k$  be positive integers with  $k \leq n$  and  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  be real numbers. Then,*

$$(x_1 + \dots + x_k)^n = \sum_{\substack{n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N}_0: \\ n_1 + \dots + n_k = n}} \binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_k^{n_k},$$

where  $\mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  and  $\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k} = n!/(n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!)$ .

*Proof.* We prove the multinomial theorem by induction on  $k$ . For  $k = 2$ , the theorem turns out the binomial theorem. Assume that the theorem holds for some  $k \geq 2$ . Then, for the case of  $k + 1$ , we first apply the binomial theorem to obtain

$$(x_1 + \cdots + x_{k+1})^n = \sum_{m=0}^n \binom{n}{m} (x_1 + \cdots + x_k)^m x_{k+1}^{n-m}.$$

By the inductive assumption, we have

$$(x_1 + \cdots + x_k)^m = \sum_{\substack{n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \\ n_1 + \cdots + n_k = m}} \binom{m}{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k} x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \cdots x_k^{n_k}.$$

With the replacement of  $m = n - n_{k+1}$ , one may derive from the above identities that

$$\begin{aligned} (x_1 + \cdots + x_{k+1})^n &= \sum_{n_{k+1}=0}^n \sum_{\substack{n_1, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N}_0 \\ n_1 + \cdots + n_k = n - n_{k+1}}} \binom{n}{n_{k+1}} \binom{n - n_{k+1}}{n_1, \dots, n_k} x_1^{n_1} \cdots x_{k+1}^{n_{k+1}} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{n_1, \dots, n_{k+1} \in \mathbb{N}_0 \\ n_1 + \cdots + n_{k+1} = n}} \binom{n}{n_1, \dots, n_{k+1}} x_1^{n_1} \cdots x_{k+1}^{n_{k+1}}. \end{aligned}$$

□

*Remark 1.4.* Note that, for  $n_1 + \cdots + n_k = n$ ,  $\binom{n}{n_1, \dots, n_k}$  also refers to the number of arrangements of  $n$  objects with  $k$  types, where  $n_i$  elements are of type  $i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .

*Example 1.3.* A child has 9 blocks, of which 3 are red, 4 are blue and 2 are yellow. There are  $\binom{9}{3,4,2} = 1260$  to line those blocks in a linear order.

*Example 1.4.* Consider a group of 20 people. If everyone shakes hands with everyone else, then  $\binom{20}{2}$  handshakes take place in total.

*Example 1.5.* To simplify the sum  $s = \sum_{j=i}^n \binom{n}{j} \binom{j}{i}$  with  $i \leq n$ , let's consider the following combinatorial statement. From a group of  $n$  people, a committee of  $j$  persons is selected and then a subcommittee of  $i$  persons is chosen from this committee. Then,  $s$  refers to the total number of ways to select both committees. Equivalently, one may first select the subcommittee and then choose the remainder committee members from the other  $n - i$  persons. This implies  $s = \binom{n}{i} 2^{n-i}$ . In fact, a direct computation using the fact of  $\binom{n}{j} \binom{j}{i} = \binom{n}{i} \binom{n-i}{j-i}$  yields

$$s = \sum_{j=i}^n \binom{n}{j} \binom{j}{i} = \binom{n}{i} \sum_{k=0}^{n-i} \binom{n-i}{k} = \binom{n}{i} 2^{n-i}.$$

*Remark 1.5.* Could one use a similar statement to simplify the sum  $\sum_{j=i}^n (-1)^j \binom{n}{j} \binom{j}{i}$ ?