

Combination Locks and Permutations

An Exploration Through Analysis

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Introduction

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- Combinations are entered by pressing buttons in sequence, with each button being pushed only once.
- How many combinations are possible?
 - If we push buttons one at a time, then the number of combinations is simply $n!$ since we are not repeating buttons.
 - However, what if we are allowed to push multiple buttons at once?

Introduction

An example for $n = 4$

Possible combinations are:

- $\{1, 2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}$
- $\{2, 3, 4\}, \{1\}$
- $\{1, 3\}, \{2, 4\}$
- $\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{4\}$

In particular, the set of multiple-button-push combinations contains the set of single-button-push combinations, so we know there are at least $n!$ combinations (the only instance when the number of combinations is actually equal to $n!$ is for $n \in \{0, 1\}$).

Introduction

Exhaustive checking works fine for small n .

Combinations for $n = 3$

$(\{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}), (\{1\}, \{3\}, \{2\}), (\{2\}, \{1\}, \{3\}), (\{2\}, \{3\}, \{1\}), (\{3\}, \{1\}, \{2\}),$
 $(\{3\}, \{2\}, \{1\}), (\{1, 2\}, \{3\}), (\{1, 3\}, \{2\}), (\{2, 3\}, \{1\}), (\{1\}, \{2, 3\}), (\{2\}, \{1, 3\}),$
 $(\{3\}, \{1, 2\}), (\{1, 2, 3\})$

There are 13 possible combinations for $n = 3$.

However, the number of combinations as n increases becomes very large.

- We know that there are at least $n!$ combinations, and the factorials blow up quickly.

Introduction

For $n = 6$, this gives us at least $6! = 720$ combinations.

Then, we are motivated to try and derive a formula to compute the number of combinations for a lock with n buttons, since writing out each of 720 combinations is not desirable.

Introduction

Let a_n be the number of combinations for an n -button lock. Then, note that a_0 , the number of combinations for a 0-button lock, is equal to 1 (the only combination is no buttons pressed).

Further, for any $n > 0$, a valid combination comprises an initial push of k buttons, for $1 \leq k \leq n$, followed by a combination formed with the remaining $n - k$ buttons.

Introduction

This leads us to a recurrence relation:

$$a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} a_{n-k} = \binom{n}{1} a_{n-1} + \binom{n}{2} a_{n-2} + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} a_1 + \binom{n}{n} a_0,$$

where $\binom{n}{k}$ represents the number of ways to pick the initial k buttons and a_{n-k} represents the number of ways to choose all of the remaining $n - k$ buttons.

Introduction

Let's try out our formula using $n = 3$. Using our recurrence relation,

$$\begin{aligned}a_3 &= \binom{3}{1}a_2 + \binom{3}{2}a_1 + \binom{3}{3}a_0 \\&= \binom{3}{1}(3) + \binom{3}{2}(1) + \binom{3}{3}(1) \\&= (3 \cdot 3) + (3 \cdot 1) + (1 \cdot 1) \\&= 13\end{aligned}$$

This matches the value we had earlier. Naturally, we would like to try and find a closed-form equation instead of a recursive one.

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This is a task we will accomplish through the use of some infinite series and integrals.

For the duration of the talk, we will adopt the convention that $0^0 = 1$ strictly for notational convenience.

A new recursive formula

We now take our relation

$$a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} a_{n-k} = \binom{n}{1} a_{n-1} + \binom{n}{2} a_{n-2} + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} a_1 + \binom{n}{n} a_0,$$

and put in the values of the binomial coefficients:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \frac{n!}{(n-1)!1!} a_{n-1} + \frac{n!}{(n-2)!2!} a_{n-2} + \cdots + \frac{n!}{1!(n-1)!} a_1 + \frac{n!}{0!n!} a_0 \\ &= n! \left(\frac{a_{n-1}}{(n-1)!1!} + \frac{a_{n-2}}{(n-2)!2!} + \cdots + \frac{a_1}{1!(n-1)!} + \frac{a_0}{0!n!} \right). \end{aligned}$$

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We notice a relationship in the terms of the sum between each a_k and the first factorial in the denominator. We thus define a new term $b_n = a_n / n!$ and rewrite the relation:

$$a_n = n! \left(\frac{b_{n-1}}{1!} + \frac{b_{n-2}}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{b_0}{n!} \right)$$

A new recursive formula

$$a_n = n! \left(\frac{b_{n-1}}{1!} + \frac{b_{n-2}}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{b_0}{n!} \right)$$

Finally, since $b_n = a_n / n!$, we divide by $n!$ to get

$$b_n = \frac{a_n}{n!} = \left(\frac{b_{n-1}}{1!} + \frac{b_{n-2}}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{b_0}{n!} \right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{b_{n-k}}{k!}.$$

This relation is a bit simpler than our original one, so it may be easier to find a closed equation for b_n first and then get one for a_n .

The calculus begins

Theorem 1

For all $n > 0$,

$$\frac{1}{2(\ln 2)^n} \leq b_n \leq \frac{1}{(\ln 2)^n}$$

We consider the generating function

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n.$$

It can be shown using Theorem 1 that the series is absolutely convergent for $|x| < \ln 2$.

And continues.

Then, for $|x| < \ln 2$,

$$\begin{aligned}f(x) &= b_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n x^n \\&= 1 + \left(\frac{b_0}{1!} x^1 \right) + \left(\frac{b_1}{1!} x^2 + \frac{b_0}{2!} x^2 \right) + \left(\frac{b_2}{1!} x^3 + \frac{b_1}{2!} x^3 + \frac{b_0}{3!} x^3 \right) + \cdots \\&= 1 + \left(\frac{b_0}{1!} x^1 + \frac{b_1}{1!} x^2 + \frac{b_2}{1!} x^3 + \cdots \right) + \left(\frac{b_0}{2!} x^2 + \frac{b_1}{2!} x^3 + \cdots \right) + \cdots \\&= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{b_{n-k}}{k!} x^n \\&= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n \\&= 1 + (e^x - 1)f(x)\end{aligned}$$

From this, we get that $f(x) = \frac{1}{2-e^x}$ for $|x| < \ln 2$.

And continues..

If $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ is the power series representation of f at 0, then we know that the coefficients, b_n , have the form

$$b_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}.$$

Recall that $b_n = a_n / n!$, which implies that

$$a_n = f^{(n)}(0),$$

or

$$a_n = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left(\frac{1}{2 - e^x} \right) \Big|_{x=0}.$$

However, this formula is still problematic, since we must calculate each intermediary derivative to get to the n^{th} one if we wish to use it.

And continues...

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as long as the series converges, which is for $|e^x/2| < 1$.

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$$\frac{e^x}{2} < 1 \implies e^x < 2 \implies x < \ln 2.$$

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Then, because $0 < \ln 2$,

$$a_n = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{e^x}{2}\right)^k \right] \Big|_{x=0} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^n \left(\frac{e^0}{2}\right)^k = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k}.$$

And now, integrals

We can approximate the sum

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k} \approx \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2^x} dx,$$

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and $dx = 1 / \ln 2 \, du$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{2^x} dx &= \int_0^{\infty} \frac{(u / (\ln 2))^n}{2^{u / (\ln 2)}} \cdot \frac{1}{\ln 2} du = \frac{1}{(\ln 2)^{n+1}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{u^n}{(2^{(1/\ln 2)})^u} du \\ &= \frac{1}{(\ln 2)^{n+1}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{u^n}{e^u} du. \end{aligned}$$

Integrals, continued

We focus now on the new integral and use integration by parts n times (choosing the constituent parts wisely):

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{u^n}{e^u} du = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n -\frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \frac{u^{n-k}}{e^u} \Big|_0^b = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} \frac{0^{n-k}}{e^0}.$$

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We note that every term in the sum is equal to 0 except the last, which is

$$\frac{n!}{(n-n)!} \frac{0^0}{e^0} = \frac{n!}{0!} \frac{1}{1} = n!.$$

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Referring back to our estimation of a_n , this gives us

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k} \approx \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty \frac{x^n}{2^x} dx = \frac{1}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}} \int_0^\infty \frac{u^n}{e^u} du = \frac{n!}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}}.$$

A brief recap

We've derived the following formulas for a_n so far:

$$\textcircled{1} \quad a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} a_{n-k} = \binom{n}{1} a_{n-1} + \binom{n}{2} a_{n-2} + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} a_1 + \binom{n}{n} a_0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad a_n = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left(\frac{1}{2 - e^x} \right) \Big|_{x=0}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad a_n \approx \frac{n!}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}}$$

We now wish to determine just how accurate our last approximation is.

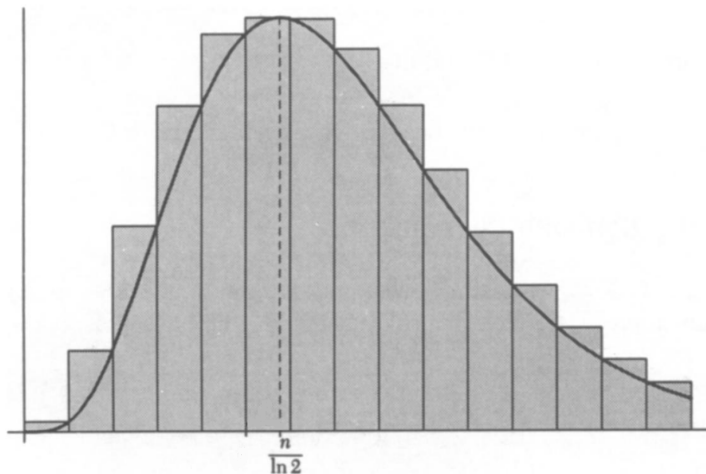
Some more calculus

We begin by defining a function g such that for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, for all $x \in [0, \infty)$, $g(x) := x^n / e^x$. The First Derivative Test will show us that g is increasing on $[0, n/\ln 2]$ and decreasing on $[n/\ln 2, \infty)$. Hence, g has a local maximum at $x = n/\ln 2$.

We are going to use rectangles to approximate the integral $\int_0^\infty \frac{x^n}{e^x} dx$. Instead of using the height at left-or-right endpoints, however, we will be using the suprema (least upper bound) and infima (greatest lower bound) of g in each subinterval. These are called *Darboux sums*.

A pictorial interlude

Break the interval $[0, \infty)$ into subintervals $[0, 1], [1, 2], \dots$, and define $j = \lfloor n/\ln 2 \rfloor$.



Back to work

Recall that g has a max at $x = n/\ln 2$. The value of g at this point is

$$\frac{(n/\ln 2)^n}{2^{n/\ln 2}} = \frac{n^n}{(2^{1/\ln 2})^n (\ln 2)^n} = \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n.$$

Then, the sum of the areas of the rectangles from the previous slide is

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Then, the sum of the areas of the rectangles from the previous slide is

$$\sum_{k=1}^j \frac{k^n}{2^k} + \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n + \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} \frac{(k)^n}{2^k}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{k=1}^j \frac{k^n}{2^k} + \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n + \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} \frac{(k)^n}{2^k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k} + \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n = 2a_n + \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n. \end{aligned}$$

An answer at last

The approximation is clearly greater than the value of the integral, so this gives us

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{x^n}{2^x} dx < 2a_n + \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n \implies -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n < a_n - \frac{n!}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}}.$$

A similar process for an underestimation of the integral yields

$$a_n - \frac{n!}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}} < \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n.$$

Hence, we have

$$\left| a_n - \frac{n!}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}} \right| < \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n,$$

which means our approximation is within $\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{n}{e \ln 2}\right)^n$ of a_n .

An unexpected result

The error bound we found is a function that increases with n . Despite this, we can show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{n! / [2(\ln 2)^{n+1}]} = 1.$$

The proof uses our derived error bounds, Stirling's Formula, and the Squeeze Theorem to show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{n! / [2(\ln 2)^{n+1}]} - 1 \right| = 0.$$

An unexpected result

This may initially seem counter-intuitive, since the error is increasing, but consider as a simple example $n^3 + n^2$ and n^3 . The error between them is n^2 , which increases quadratically with n , but

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3 + n^2}{n^3} = 1.$$

Finally, some combinatorics

Instead of approximating a_n via the methods we have gone through, we can also simply just evaluate the infinite sum. For $n \geq 0$, define

$$h_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^n x^k.$$

Recalling our formula

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k},$$

it is clear that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2} h_n\left(\frac{1}{2}\right).$$

So, by finding formulas for each h_n , we can find a formula for a_n .

But first, some preliminary calculus (Ha!)

Looking at $h_0(x)$, we have

$$h_0(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^0 x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

We now look at the differentiation of the series:

$$h'_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^n k \cdot x^{k-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^{n+1} x^{k-1},$$

from which we can get

$$x h'_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^{n+1} x^k = h_{n+1}(x).$$

Yet another recurrence

Given our newly found recurrence, $xh'_n(x) = h_{n+1}(x)$, we look at its particular values for $n \leq 5$:

$$h_0(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

$$h_1(x) = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$

$$h_2(x) = \frac{x+x^2}{(1-x)^3}$$

$$h_3(x) = \frac{x+4x^2+x^3}{(1-x)^4}$$

$$h_4(x) = \frac{x+11x^2+11x^3+x^4}{(1-x)^5}$$

$$h_5(x) = \frac{x+26x^2+66x^3+26x^4+x^5}{(1-x)^6}$$

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- 1 The numerator contains a polynomial of degree n .
- 2 The coefficients of the polynomial appear to be symmetric.
- 3 The denominator is always $(1-x)^{n+1}$.

We define now $A_{n,k}$ to be the coefficient of x^k in h_n . For example, given

$$h_4(x) = \frac{x + 11x^2 + 11x^3 + x^4}{(1-x)^5},$$

$$A_{4,3} = 11.$$

This is the last recurrence relation

Theorem 2

For all $n \geq 1$,

$$h_n(x) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n A_{n,k} x^k}{(1-x)^{n+1}}$$

where $A_{n,k}$ is defined by the following recurrence:

$$A_{n,1} = A_{n,n} = 1, \quad A_{n+1,k} = kA_{n,k} + (n+2-k)A_{n,k-1}, \quad \text{for } 2 \leq k \leq n$$

The proof of Theorem 2 follows by induction.

Since we have a formula for $A_{n,k}$ now, we will compute them for the first few values of n .

Like Pascal's Triangle, only not

				1			
			1		1		
		1		4		1	
	1		11		11		1
1		26		66		26	1

These do in fact match the coefficients we found earlier. Recall (or learn anew) that the numbers in the n^{th} row of Pascal's Triangle sum to 2^n . Let's sum the rows of this triangle to see if we get anything interesting:

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$$1 + 1 = 2$$

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$$1 + 4 + 1 = 6$$

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$$1 + 11 + 11 + 1 = 24$$

Like Pascal's Triangle, only not

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		1		4		1	
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$$1 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 2$$

$$1 + 4 + 1 = 6$$

$$1 + 11 + 11 + 1 = 24$$

$$1 + 26 + 66 + 26 + 1 = 120$$

Like Pascal's Triangle, only not

				1			
			1		1		
		1		4		1	
	1		11		11		1
1		26		66		26	1

These do in fact match the coefficients we found earlier. Recall (or learn anew) that the numbers in the n^{th} row of Pascal's Triangle sum to 2^n . Let's sum the rows of this triangle to see if we get anything interesting:

$$1 = 1$$

$$1 + 1 = 2$$

$$1 + 4 + 1 = 6$$

$$1 + 11 + 11 + 1 = 24$$

$$1 + 26 + 66 + 26 + 1 = 120$$

- These are the factorials!

Eulerean numbers

The $A_{n,k}$'s we defined earlier are, in fact, already well known in combinatorics as the Eulerean numbers, and they denote the number of n -permutations with k increasing runs. As a reminder, an n -permutation is a permutation of $1, 2, \dots, n$. A definition of an increasing run is as follows:

Increasing run

For an n -permutation $(s_1 s_2 \cdots s_n)$, a sequence of terms $s_i s_{i+1} \cdots s_k$ where $i \leq k$, $s_j < s_{j+1}$ for $i \leq j < k$, and either $k = n$ or $s_k > s_{k+1}$.

Example: The permutation $(1\ 4\ 3\ 5\ 2)$ has the increasing runs $(1\ 4)$, $(3\ 5)$, and (2) .

No calculus appears on this slide

The patterns we noticed earlier are in fact properties of the Eulerian numbers:

Theorem 3

For all $n \geq 1$,

- (a) $\sum_{k=1}^n A_{n,k} = n!$,
- (b) $A_{n,k} = A_{n,n+1-k}$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Part (a) is obvious from the definition of $A_{n,k}$. A proof of part (b) appears in [*Advanced Combinatorics* by L. Comtet, p. 242].

Recalling that $a_n = (1/2)h_n(1/2)$, we can now say

$$a_n = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n A_{n,k} (1/2)^k}{(1 - (1/2))^{n+1}} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{n,k} 2^{n-k}.$$

Interpreting the formula

The equation $a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{n,k} 2^{n-k}$ has a natural interpretation for the lock combinations. If we take an n -permutation with k increasing runs, we can delimit the runs as seen for (4 1 3 2 5 6):

$$(4 | 1 3 | 2 5 6).$$

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The most obvious combination we can get from this is $(\{4\}, \{1,3\}, \{2,5,6\})$, but we can also create other combinations by limiting any of the remaining spots.

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This gives us 2^{n-k} combinations for each n -permutation with k increasing runs, of which there are $A_{n,k}$.

A formula does exist for $A_{n,k}$ (see Comtet, pp. 243), we can combine it with the above formula to get

$$a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (-1)^i \binom{n+1}{i} (k-i)^n 2^{n-k}.$$

The Stirling numbers of the second kind

Stirling number of the second kind

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $1 \leq k \leq n$, the Stirling number of the second kind, denoted $S(n, k)$ is equal to the number of ways to partition the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ into k unordered non-empty subsets.

A combination lock is of course an *ordered* partition, and if we have k subsets, there are $k!$ ways to order them. Hence,

$$a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n k! S(n, k).$$

A formula for $S(n, k)$ exists as well (Comtet, pp. 204-205):

$$S(n, k) = \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (-1)^i \binom{k}{i} (k-i)^n.$$

Thus, we get our last formula for a_n :

$$a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (-1)^i \binom{k}{i} (k-i)^n.$$

Wrapping up

Here are all of our formulas for a_n :

$$\textcircled{1} \quad a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} a_{n-k} = \binom{n}{1} a_{n-1} + \binom{n}{2} a_{n-2} + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} a_1 + \binom{n}{n} a_0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad a_n = \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left(\frac{1}{2 - e^x} \right) \Big|_{x=0}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad a_n = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{2^k}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \quad a_n \approx \frac{n!}{2(\ln 2)^{n+1}}$$

$$\textcircled{5} \quad a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (-1)^i \binom{n+1}{i} (k-i)^n 2^{n-k}$$

$$\textcircled{6} \quad a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} (-1)^n \binom{k}{i} (k-i)^n$$

References

1. L. Comtet, *Advanced Combinatorics*, D. Reidel, Dordrecht-Holland, 1974
2. D. Velleman and G. Call, *Permutations and combination locks*, *Mathematics Magazine* **68** (1995) 243-252.