

Fig. 3.3. The zigzag path is the shortest.

interesting, problem behind the curious particular problem about the magic word of Fig. 3.2.

A general formulation may have various advantages. It sometimes suggests an approach to the solution, and this happens in our case. *If you cannot solve the proposed problem* about Fig. 3.2 (probably you cannot), *try first to solve some simpler related problem.* At this point the general formulation may help: it suggests trying simpler cases that fall under it. In fact, if the two given corners are close enough to each other in the network (closer than the extreme *A*'s in Fig. 3.3) it is easy to count the different zigzag paths between the two: you can draw each one after the other and survey all of them. Listen to this suggestion and pursue it systematically. Start from the point *A* and go downward. Consider first the points that you can reach by walking one block, then those to which you have to walk two blocks, then those which are three or four or more blocks away. Survey and count for each point the shortest zigzag paths

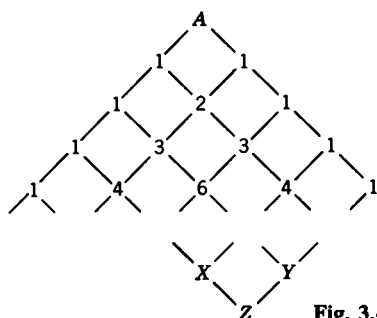


Fig. 3.4. Count the number of shortest zigzag paths.

that connect it with *A*. In Fig. 3.4 a few numbers so obtained are marked (but you should have obtained these numbers and a few more by yourself—check them at least). Observe these numbers—do you notice something?

If you have enough previous knowledge you may notice many things. Yet even if you have never before seen this array of numbers displayed by Fig. 3.4 you may notice an interesting relation: any number in Fig. 3.4 that is different from 1 is the sum of two other numbers in the array, of its northwest and northeast neighbors. For instance,

$$4 = 1 + 3, \quad 6 = 3 + 3$$

You may discover this law by observation as a naturalist discovers the laws of his science by observation. Yet, after having discovered it, you should ask yourself: Why is that so? What is the reason?

The reason is simple enough. Consider three corners in your network, the points *X*, *Y*, and *Z*, the relative position of which is shown by Fig. 3.4: *X* is the northwest neighbor and *Y* the northeast neighbor of *Z*. If we wish to reach *Z* coming from *A* along a shortest path in the network, we must pass either through *X* or through *Y*. Once we have reached *X*, we can proceed hence to *Z* in just one way, and the same is true for proceeding from *Y* to *Z*. Therefore, the *total number of shortest paths from A to Z* is a sum of two terms: it *equals the number of shortest paths from A to X added to the number of those from A to Y*. This explains fully our observation and proves the general law.

Having clarified this basic point, we can extend the array of numbers in Fig. 3.4 by simple additions till we obtain the larger array in Fig. 3.5, the south corner of which yields the desired answer: we can read the magic word in Fig. 3.2 in exactly 252 different ways.

### 3.6. The Pascal triangle

By now the reader has probably recognized the numbers and their

Some of the binomial coefficients and their triangular arrangement can be found in the writings of other authors before Pascal's *Traité du triangle arithmétique*. Still, the merits of Pascal in this matter are quite sufficient to justify the use of his name.

$$n = l + r$$

				1				
			1		1			
		1		2		1		
	1		3		3		1	
1		4		6		4		1
1	5		10		10		5	1
6	15		20		15		6	
	21		35		35		21	
		56		70		56		
			126		126			
				252				

**Fig. 3.5. A square from a triangle.**

the other southeast.) For instance, for the last  $A$  of the path shown in Fig. 3.3

$$l = 5, \quad r = 5, \quad n = 10$$

and for the second  $B$  of the same path

$$l = 5, \quad r = 3, \quad n = 8$$

We shall denote by  $\binom{n}{r}$  (this notation is due to Euler) the number of shortest zigzag paths from the apex of the Pascal triangle to the point specified by  $n$  (total number of blocks) and  $r$  (blocks to the right downward). For instance, see Fig. 3.5,

$$\binom{8}{3} = 56, \quad \binom{10}{5} = 252$$

The symbols for the numbers contained in Fig. 3.4 are assembled in Fig. 3.6. The symbols with the same number upstairs (the same  $n$ ) are horizontally aligned (along the  $n$ th “base”—the base of a right triangle). The symbols with the same number downstairs (the same  $r$ ) are obliquely aligned (along the  $r$ th “avenue”). The fifth avenue forms one of the sides of the square in Fig. 3.5—the opposite side is formed by the 0th avenue (but you may call it the borderline, or Riverside Drive, if you prefer to do so). The fourth base is emphasized in Fig. 3.4.

(2) Besides the geometric aspect, the Pascal triangle also has a computational aspect. All the numbers along the boundary (0th street, 0th avenue, and their common starting point) are equal to 1 (it is obvious that

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & & & & \binom{0}{0} & & \\
 & & & & \binom{1}{0} & & \binom{1}{1} \\
 & & & \binom{2}{0} & & \binom{2}{1} & & \binom{2}{2} \\
 & & \binom{3}{0} & & \binom{3}{1} & & \binom{3}{2} & & \binom{3}{3} \\
 \binom{4}{0} & & \binom{4}{1} & & \binom{4}{2} & & \binom{4}{3} & & \binom{4}{4}
 \end{array}$$
  

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 \binom{n}{r-1} & & \binom{n}{r} \\
 & \binom{n+1}{r} &
 \end{array}$$

Fig. 3.6. Symbolic Pascal triangle.

there is just one shortest path to these street corners from the starting point). Therefore,

$$\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$$

It is appropriate to call this relation the *boundary condition* of the Pascal triangle.

Any number inside the Pascal triangle is situated along a certain horizontal row, or base. We compute a number of the  $(n + 1)$ th base by going back, or recurring, to two neighboring numbers of the  $n$ th base:

$$\binom{n+1}{r} = \binom{n}{r} + \binom{n}{r-1}$$

see Fig. 3.6. It is appropriate to call this equation the *recursion formula* of the Pascal triangle.

From the computer's standpoint the numbers  $\binom{n}{r}$  are determined (or defined, if you wish) by the recursion formula and the boundary condition of the Pascal triangle.

### 3.7. Mathematical induction

When we compute a number in the Pascal triangle by using the recursion formula, we have to rely on the previous knowledge of two numbers of the foregoing base. It would be desirable to have a scheme of computation independent of such previous knowledge. There is a well-known formula, which we shall call the *explicit formula* for binomial coefficients, that yields such an independent computation:

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-r+1)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots r}$$

Pascal's treatise contains the explicit formula (stated in words, not in our modern notation). Pascal does not say how he has discovered it and we shall not speculate too much how he might have discovered it. (Perhaps he just guessed it first—we often find such things by observation and tentative generalization of the observed; see the remark in the solution of ex. 3.39.) Yet Pascal gives a remarkable proof for the explicit formula and we wish to devote our full attention to his method of proof.<sup>4</sup>

We need a preliminary remark. The explicit formula does not apply,

<sup>4</sup> Cf. Pascal's *Œuvres l.c.* footnote 3, pp. 455–464, especially pp. 456–457. The following presentation takes advantage of modern notation and modifies less essential details.