Discrete Mathematics

Combinatorics — Spring 2025

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§1 Combinatorics

Introduction to Combinatorics

Definition 1: Combinatorics is the branch of discrete mathematics that deals with *counting*, *arranging*, and analyzing *discrete structures*.

Three basic problems of Combinatorics:

- **1.** Existence: *Is there at least one arrangement of a particular kind?*
- **2.** Counting: How many arrangements are there?
- **3.** Optimization: Which one is best according to some criteria?

Discrete structures

• Graphs, sets, multisets, sequences, patterns, coverings, partitions...

Enumeration

• Permutations, combinations, inclusion/exclusion, generating functions, recurrence relations...

Algorithms and optimization

• Sorting, eulerian circuits, hamiltonian cycles, planarity testing, graph coloring, spanning trees, shortest paths, network flows, bipartite matchings, chain partitions...

Discrete Structures

We investigate the *building blocks* of combinatorics:

- Sets and multisets
- Sequences and strings
- Arrangements
- Graphs, networks, trees
- Posets and lattices
- Partitions
- Patterns, coverings, designs, configurations
- · Schedules, assignments, distributions

Used in data modeling, logic, cryptography, and the design of data structures.

Enumerative Combinatorics

We learn how to count without explicit listing:

- Permutations and combinations
- Inclusion–Exclusion Principle
- Set partitions, integer partitions, Stirling numbers, Catalan numbers
- Recurrence relations
- Generating functions

Used in probability theory, complexity theory, coding theory, computational biology.

Algorithmic and Optimization Methods

Combinatorics powers *algorithm design* and complexity analysis:

- Sorting
- Searching
- Eulerian paths and Hamiltonian cycles
- Planarity, colorings, cliques, coverings
- Spanning trees
- Shortest paths
- · Network flows
- Bipartite matchings
- Dilworth's theorem, chain and antichain partitions

Used in logistics, scheduling, routing, and complexity optimization.

§2 Basic Counting Principles

Basic Counting Rules

PRODUCT RULE: If something can happen in n_1 ways, and no matter how the first thing happens, a second thing can happen in n_2 ways, then the two things together can happen in $n_1 \cdot n_2$ ways.

SUM RULE: If one event can occur in n_1 ways and a second event in n_2 (different) ways, then there are $n_1 + n_2$ ways in which *either* the first event *or* the second event can occur (*but not both*).

Addition Principle

Definition 2: We say a finite set S is *partitioned* into *parts* $S_1,...,S_m$ if the parts are pairwise disjoint and their union is S. In other words, $S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$ for $i \neq j$ and $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup ... \cup S_k = S$. In that case:

$$|S| = |S_1| + |S_2| + \ldots + |S_m|$$

Example: Let S be the set of students attending the combinatorics lecture. It can be partitioned into parts S_1 and S_2 where

 $S_1 = \text{set of students that like easy examples.}$

 $S_2 = \text{set of students that don't like easy examples.}$

If $|S_1| = 22$ and $|S_2| = 8$, then we can conclude $|S| = |S_1| + |S_2| = 30$.

Multiplication Principle

Definition 3: If S is a finite set that is the *product* of $S_1,...,S_m$, that is, $S=S_1\times...\times S_m$, then

$$|S| = |S_1| \times \ldots \times |S_m|$$

Example: TODO: example with car plates

Subtraction Principle

Definition 4: Let S be a subset of a finite set T. We define the *complement* of S as $\overline{S} = T \setminus S$. Then

$$\left|\overline{S}\right| = |T| - |S|$$

Example: If T is the set of students studying at KIT and S the set of students studying neither math nor computer science. If we know |T| = 23905 and |S| = 20178, then we can compute the number |S| of students studying either math or computer science:

$$|S| = |T| - |S| = 23905 - 20178 = 3727$$

Bijection Principle

Definition 5: If S and T are sets, then

$$|S| = |T| \iff$$
 there exists a bijection between S and T

Example: Let S be the set of students attending the combinatorics lecture and T the set of homework submissions (unique per student) for the first problem sheet. If the number of students and the number of submissions coincide, then there is a bijection between students and submissions.

Note: The bijection principle works both for *finite* and *infinite* sets.

Pigeonhole Principle

Definition 6: Let $S_1, ..., S_m$ be finite sets that are pairwise disjoint and $|S_1| + |S_2| + ... + |S_m| = n$.

$$\exists i \in \{1,...,m\}: |S_i| \geq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{m} \right\rfloor \quad \text{and} \quad \exists j \in \{1,...,m\}: \left|S_j\right| \leq \left\lceil \frac{n}{m} \right\rceil$$

Example: Assume there are 5 holes in the wall where pigeons nest. Say there is a set S_i of pigeons nesting in hole i. Assume there are n=17 pigeons in total. Then we know:

- There is some hole with at least d = 4 pigeons.
- There is some hole with at most b = 3 pigeons.

Double Counting

If we count the same quantity in *two different ways*, then this gives us a (perhaps non-trivial) identity.

Example ($Handshaking\ Lemma$): Assume there are n people at a party and everybody will shake hands with everybody else. How many handshakes will occur? We count this number in two ways:

- **1.** Every person shakes n-1 hands and there are n people. However, two people are involved in a handshake so if we just multiply $n \cdot (n-1)$, then every handshake is counted twice. The total number of handshakes is therefore $\frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2}$.
- 2. We number the people from 1 to n. To avoid counting a handshake twice, we count for person i only the handshakes with persons of lower numbers. Then the total number of handshakes is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (i-1) = \sum_{i=0}^{\{n-1\}} i = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i$$

The identity we obtain is therefore: $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i = \frac{n \cdot (n-1)}{2}$

§3 Arrangements, Permutations, Combinations

Ordered Arrangements

Definition 7: Denote by $[n] = \{1, ..., n\}$ the set of natural numbers from 1 to n.

Hereinafter, let *X* be a finite set.

Definition 8: An *ordered arrangement* of n elements of X is a map $s : [n] \longrightarrow X$.

- Here, [n] is the *domain* of s, and s(i) is the *image* of $i \in [n]$ under s.
- The set $\{x \in X \mid s(i) = x \text{ for some } i \in [n]\}$ is the *range* of s.

Other common names for ordered arrangements are:

- string (or word), e.g. "Banana"
- sequence, e.g. "0815422372"
- tuple, e.g. (3, 5, 2, 5, 8)

Permutations

Definition 9: A permutation of X is a bijective map $\pi : [n] \longrightarrow X$.

Usually, X=[n], and the set of all permutations of [n] is denoted by S_n .

Definition 10: *k-permutation* of X is an ordered arrangement of k *distinct* elements of X, that is, an *injective* map $\pi : [k] \longrightarrow X$.

The set of all k-permutations of X = [n] is denoted by P(n, k). In particular, $S_n = P(n, n)$.

TODO: circular permutations

Counting Permutations

Theorem 1: For any natural numbers $0 \le k \le n$, we have

$$|P(n,k)|=n\cdot (n-1)\cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)=\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

Proof: A permutation is an injective map $\pi:[k] \longrightarrow [n]$. We count the number of ways to pick such a map, picking the images one after the other. There are n ways to choose $\pi(1)$. Given a value for $\pi(1)$, there are (n-1) ways to choose $\pi(2)$ (since we may not choose $\pi(1)$ again). Continuing like this, there are (n-i+1) ways to pick $\pi(i)$, and the last value we pick is $\pi(k)$ with (n-k+1) possibilities.

Every k-permutation can be constructed like this in *exactly one way*. The total number of k-permutations is therefore given as the product:

$$|P(n,k)| = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

Counting Circular Permutations

Theorem 2: For any natural numbers $0 \le k \le n$, we have

$$|P_c(n,k)| = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}$$

Proof: We doubly count P(n, k):

- **1.** $|P(n,k)| = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ which we proved before.
- 2. $|P(n,k)| = |P_c(n,k)| \cdot k$ because every equivalence class in $P_c(n,k)$ contains k permutations from P(n,k) since there are k ways to rotate a k-permutation.

From this we get
$$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!} = |P_c(n,k)| \cdot k$$
 which implies $|P_c(n,k)| = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}$.

Unordered Arrangements

Definition 11: An unordered arrangement of k elements of X is a multiset $S = \langle X, r \rangle$ of size k.

In a multiset, X is the set of *types*, and for each type $x \in X$, r_x is its *repetition number*.

Example: Let $X = \{ \langle \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle$.

- An unordered arrangement of 7 elements could be $S = \{ \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle, \langle \rangle \rangle$.
- The same multiset could be written as $S = \{2 \otimes , 1 \otimes , 3 \otimes , 1 \otimes , 1 \otimes \}$.

Subsets

The most important special case of unordered arrangements is where all repetitions are 1, i.e., $r_x=1$ for all $x\in X$. Then S is simply a *subset* of X, denoted $S\subset X$.

Definition 12: A k-combination of X is an unordered arrangement of k distinct elements of X.

Note: The more standard term is *subset*. The term "combination" is only used to emphasize the selection process.

The set of all k-subsets of X is denoted $\binom{X}{k} = \{A \subseteq X \mid |A| = k\}$. If |X| = n, then

$$\binom{n}{k} \coloneqq \left| \binom{X}{k} \right|$$

Example: The set of edges in a simple undirected graph consists of 2-subsets of its vertices: $E \subseteq \binom{V}{2}$.

Counting k-Combinations

Theorem 3: For $0 \le k \le n$, we have

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

Proof:

$$|P(n,k)| = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} = \binom{n}{k} \cdot k!$$

k-Combinations of a Multiset

Definition 13: Let X be a finite set of types, and let $M=\langle X,r\rangle$ be a finite multiset with repetition numbers $r_1,...,r_{|X|}$. A k-combination of M is a multiset $S=\langle X,s\rangle$ with with types in X and repetition numbers $s_1,...,s_{|X|}$ such that $s_i\leq r_i$ for all $1\leq i\leq |X|$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{|X|}s_i=k$.

Example: Consider $M = \{2 \ \ , 1 \ \ \ \ , 3 \ \ \ \ \}$.

- $T = \{1\}$, 2 } is a 3-combination of M.
- $T' = \{3 \ \ \}$ is not.

Counting k-combinations of a multiset is not as simple as it might seem...

k-Permutations of a Multiset

Definition 14: Let M be a finite multiset with set of types X. A k-permutation of M is an ordered arrangement of k elements of M where different orderings of elements of the same type are not distinguished. This is an ordered multiset with types in X and repetition numbers $s_1, ..., s_{|X|}$ such that $s_i \leq r_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq |X|$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{|X|} s_i = k$.

Note: There might be several elements of the same type compared to a permutation of a set (where each repetition number equals 1).

Example: Let $M = \{2 \}$, 1, 3, 3, 4, then T = (?,), , ,) is a 4-permutation of multiset M.

Binomial Theorem

Theorem 4: The expansion of any non-negative integer power n of the binomial (x + y) is a sum

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

where each $\binom{n}{k}$ is a positive integer known as a *binomial coefficient*, defined as

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)...(n-k+1)}{k(k-1)(k-2)...\cdot 2\cdot 1}$$

Multinomial Theorem

Theorem 5: The generalization of the binomial theorem:

$$(x_1 + \ldots + x_r)^n = \sum_{\substack{0 \leq k_1, \ldots, k_r \leq n \\ k_1 + \ldots + k_r = n}}^n \binom{n}{k_1, \ldots, k_r} \cdot x_1^{k_1} \cdot \ldots \cdot x_r^{k_r}$$

Multinomial coefficients are defined as

$$\binom{n}{k_1,\dots,k_r} = \frac{n!}{k_{1!}\cdot\dots\cdot k_{r!}}$$

Note: Binomial coefficients are special cases of multinomial coefficients (r = 2):

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{k_1, k_2} = \binom{n}{k, n-k} = \frac{n!}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}$$

Proof: TODO

Permutations of a Multiset

Theorem 6: Let S be a finite multiset with k different types and repetition numbers $r_1, ..., r_k$. Let the size of S be $n = r_1 + ... + r_k$. Then the number of n-permutations of S equals

$$\binom{n}{r_1,...,r_k}$$

Proof: In an *n*-permutation there are *n* positions that need to be assigned a type.

First, choose the r_1 positions for the first type, there are $\binom{n}{r_1}$ ways to do so. Then, assign r_2 positions for the second type, out of the $(n-r_1)$ positions that are still available, there are $\binom{n-r_1}{r_2}$ ways to do so. Continue for all *k* types. The total number of choices will be:

$$\binom{n}{r_1} \cdot \binom{n-r_1}{r_2} \cdot \ldots \cdot \binom{n-r_1-r_2-\ldots-r_{k-1}}{r_k} = \binom{n}{r_1,\ldots,r_k}$$

27 / 29

k-Combinations of an *Infinite* Multiset

Example: Suppose you have a *sufficiently large* amount of each type of fruit (\searrow , \swarrow) in the supermarket, and you want to buy *two* fruits. How many choices do you have?

There are exactly *six* combinations: $\{ \searrow, , \searrow \}, \{ \searrow, , \stackrel{\checkmark}{ } \}, \{ \swarrow, , \stackrel{\checkmark}{ } \}.$

Note that your selection is *not ordered*, so $\{ \triangle, \circlearrowleft \}$ and $\{ \circlearrowleft, \vartriangle \}$ are considered the *same* choice.

k-Combinations of an *Infinite* Multiset [2]

Theorem 7: Let $k, s \in \mathbb{N}$ and let S be a multiset with s types and large repetition numbers (each $r_1, ..., r_s$ is at least k), then the number of k-combinations of S equals

$$\binom{k+s-1}{k} = \binom{k+s-1}{s-1}$$

Proof: Let $S = \{\infty , \infty , \infty , \infty \}$, so s = 3.

- Suppose k = 5.
- Consider a 5-combination of $S: \{ \downarrow, , , , \downarrow, , \downarrow \}$.
- Convert to *dots* and *bars*: •• | | |
- Represent as a multiset: $M = \{k \cdot \bullet, (s-1) \cdot | \}$
- Permute the 2-type multiset: $\binom{k+s-1}{k,s-1}$ ways, by Theorem 5.