Discrete Mathematics

Chapter 6, Counting

Part 1

Reference book: Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications 8th ed. (Rosen, 2019)

The Basics of Counting

Section 6.1

Basic Counting Principles: The Product Rule

The Product Rule: A procedure can be broken down into a sequence of two tasks. There are n_1 ways to do the first task and n_2 ways to do the second task. Then there are $n_1 \cdot n_2$ ways to do the procedure.

Example: How many bit strings of length seven are there?

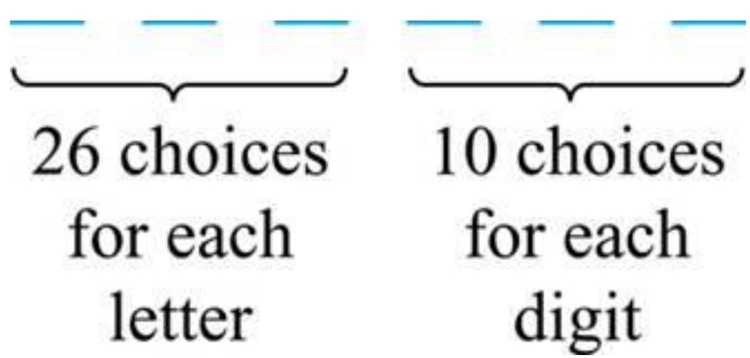
Solution: Since each of the seven bits is either a 0 or a 1, the answer is $2^7 = 128$.

The Product Rule

Example: How many different license plates can be made if each plate contains a sequence of three uppercase English letters followed by three digits?

Solution: By the product rule,

there are 26 · 26 · 26 · 10 · 10 · 10 = 17,576,000 different possible license plates.



Counting Functions

Counting Functions: How many functions are there from a set with m elements to a set with n elements?
Solution: Since a function represents a choice of one of the n elements of the codomain for each of the m elements in the domain, the product rule tells us that there are $n \cdot n \cdots n = n^m$ such functions.

Counting One-to-One Functions: How many one-to-one functions are there from a set with m elements to one with n elements?
Solution: Suppose the elements in the domain are $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m$. There are n ways to choose the value of a_1 and $n-1$ ways to choose a_2, etc. The product rule tells us that there are $n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-m+1)$ such functions.

Counting Subsets of a Finite Set

Counting Subsets of a Finite Set: Use the product rule to show that the number of different subsets of a finite set S is $2^{|S|}$. (*In Section* 5.1, *mathematical induction was used to prove this same result*.)

Solution: When the elements of S are listed in an arbitrary order, there is a one-to-one correspondence between subsets of S and bit strings of length $|S|$. When the ith element is in the subset, the bit string has a 1 in the ith position and a 0 otherwise.

By the product rule, there are $2^{|S|}$ such bit strings, and therefore $2^{|S|}$ subsets.

Product Rule in Terms of Sets

If $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_m$ are finite sets, then the number of elements in the Cartesian product of these sets is the product of the number of elements of each set.

The task of choosing an element in the Cartesian product $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_m$ is done by choosing an element in A_1, an element in A_2, …, and an element in A_m.

By the product rule, it follows that:

$$|A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_m| = |A_1| \cdot |A_2| \cdot \cdots \cdot |A_m|$$

Basic Counting Principles: The Sum Rule

The Sum Rule: If a task can be done either in one of n_1 ways or in one of n_2, where none of the set of n_1 ways is the same as any of the n_2 ways, then there are $n_1 + n_2$ ways to do the task.

Example: The mathematics department must choose either a student or a faculty member as a representative for a university committee. How many choices are there for this representative if there are 37 members of the mathematics faculty and 83 mathematics majors and no one is both a faculty member and a student.

Solution: By the sum rule it follows that there are 37 + 83 = 120 possible ways to pick a representative.

The Sum Rule in terms of sets.

The sum rule can be phrased in terms of sets.

$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$ as long as A and B are disjoint sets.

Or more generally,

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_m| = |A_1| + |A_2| + \cdots + |A_m|$$
$$\text{when } A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \text{ for all } i, j.$$

Combining the Sum and Product Rule

Example: Suppose statement labels in a programming language can be either a single letter or a letter followed by a digit. Find the number of possible labels.

Solution: Use the product rule.

$$26 + 26 \cdot 10 = 286$$

Counting Passwords

Combining the sum and product rule allows us to solve more complex problems.
Example: Each user on a computer system has a password, which is six to eight characters long, where each character is an uppercase letter or a digit. Each password must contain at least one digit. How many possible passwords are there?

Solution: Let P be the total number of passwords, and let P_6, P_7, and P_8 be the passwords of length 6, 7, and 8.

- By the sum rule $P = P_6 + P_7 + P_8$.
- To find each of P_6, P_7, and P_8 , we find the number of passwords of the specified length composed of letters and digits and subtract the number composed only of letters. We find that:
  $P_6 = 36^6 - 26^6 = 2{,}176{,}782{,}336 - 308{,}915{,}776 = 1{,}867{,}866{,}560.$
  $P_7 = 36^7 - 26^7 =$
  $78{,}364{,}164{,}096 - 8{,}031{,}810{,}176 = 70{,}332{,}353{,}920.$
  $P_8 = 36^8 - 26^8 =$
  $2{,}821{,}109{,}907{,}456 - 208{,}827{,}064{,}576 = 2{,}612{,}282{,}842{,}880.$

Consequently, $P = P_6 + P_7 + P_8 = 2{,}684{,}483{,}063{,}360.$

Basic Counting Principles: Subtraction Rule

Subtraction Rule: If a task can be done either in one of n_1 ways or in one of n_2 ways, then the total number of ways to do the task is $n_1 + n_2$ minus the number of ways to do the task that are common to the two different ways.

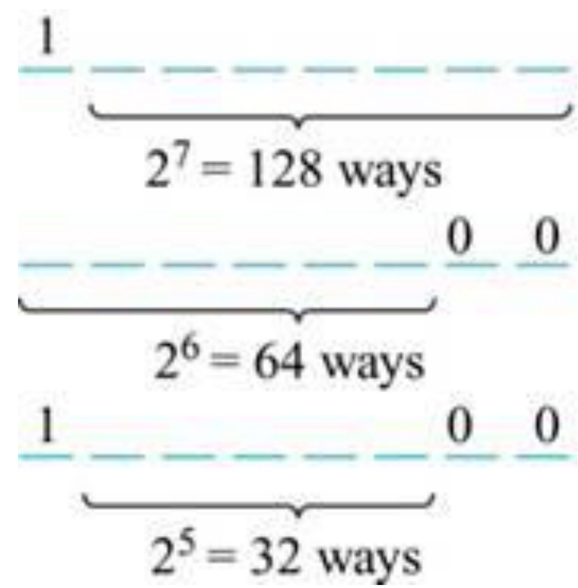
Also known as, the *principle of inclusion-exclusion*:

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$

Counting Bit Strings

Example: How many bit strings of length eight either start with a 1 bit or end with the two bits 00?

Solution: Use the subtraction rule.



- Number of bit strings of length eight that start with a 1 bit: $2^7 = 128$
- Number of bit strings of length eight that end with bits 00: $2^6 = 64$
- Number of bit strings of length eight that start with a 1 bit and end with bits 00 : $2^5 = 32$

Hence, the number is $128 + 64 - 32 = 160$.

Basic Counting Principles: Division Rule

Division Rule: There are n/d ways to do a task if it can be done using a procedure that can be carried out in n ways, and for every way w, exactly d of the n ways correspond to way w.
Restated in terms of sets: If the finite set A is the union of n pairwise disjoint subsets each with d elements, then $n = |A|/d$.
In terms of functions: If f is a function from A to B, where both are finite sets, and for every value $y \in B$ there are exactly d values $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$, then $|B| = |A|/d.$

Example: How many ways are there to seat four people around a circular table, where two seatings are considered the same when each person has the same left and right neighbor?

Solution: Number the seats around the table from 1 to 4 proceeding clockwise. There are four ways to select the person for seat 1, 3 for seat 2, 2, for seat 3, and one way for seat 4. Thus there are 4! = 24 ways to order the four people. But since two seatings are the same when each person has the same left and right neighbor, for every choice for seat 1, we get the same seating.

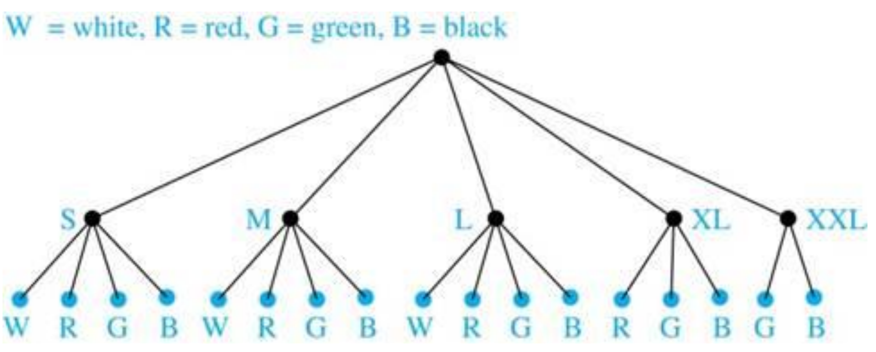
Therefore, by the division rule, there are 24/4 = 6 different seating arrangements.

Tree Diagrams

Tree Diagrams: We can solve many counting problems through the use of *tree diagrams*, where a branch represents a possible choice and the leaves represent possible outcomes.

Example: Suppose that "I Love Discrete Math" T-shirts come in five different sizes: S,M,L,XL, and XXL. Each size comes in four colors (white, red, green, and black), except XL, which comes only in red, green, and black, and XXL, which comes only in green and black. What is the minimum number of shirts that the campus book store needs to stock to have one of each size and color available?

Solution: Draw the tree diagram.



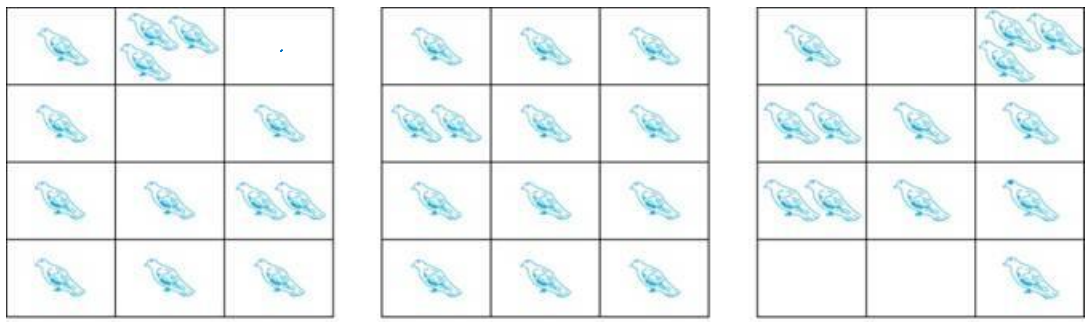
The store must stock 17 T-shirts.

The Pigeonhole Principle

Section 6.2

The Pigeonhole Principle[1]

If a flock of 13 pigeons roosts in a set of 12 pigeonholes, one of the pigeonholes must have more than 1 pigeon.



(a) (b) (c)

Pigeonhole Principle: If k is a positive integer and $k + 1$ objects are placed into k boxes, then at least one box contains two or more objects.

Proof: We use a proof by contraposition. Suppose none of the k boxes has more than one object. Then the total number of objects would be at most k. This contradicts the statement that we have $k + 1$ objects.

The Pigeonhole Principle $_2$

Corollary 1: A function *f* from a set with $k + 1$ elements to a set with k elements is not one-to-one.

Proof: Use the pigeonhole principle.

- Create a box for each element y in the codomain of f .
- Put in the box for y all of the elements x from the domain such that $f(x) = y$.
- Because there are $k + 1$ elements and only k boxes, at least one box has two or more elements.

Hence, *f* can't be one-to-one.

The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle 1

The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle: If N objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ objects.

Proof: We use a proof by contraposition. Suppose that none of the boxes contains more than $\lceil N/k \rceil - 1$ objects. Then the total number of objects is at most

$$k\left(\left\lceil \frac{N}{k} \right\rceil - 1\right) < k\left(\left(\frac{N}{k} + 1\right) - 1\right) = N,$$

where the inequality $\lceil N/k \rceil < N/k + 1$ has been used. This is a contradiction because there are a total of n objects.

Example: Among 100 people there are at least $\lceil 100/12 \rceil = 9$ who were born in the same month.

Permutations and Combinations

Section 6.3

Permutations

Definition: A *permutation* of a set of distinct objects is an ordered arrangement of these objects. An ordered arrangement of r elements of a set is called an *r-permutation*.

Example: Let $S = \{1,2,3\}$.

- The ordered arrangement 3,1,2 is a permutation of S.
- The ordered arrangement 3,2 is a 2-permutation of S.

The number of r-permutations of a set with n elements is denoted by $P(n,r)$.

- The 2-permutations of $S = \{1,2,3\}$ are 1,2; 1,3; 2,1; 2,3; 3,1; and 3,2. Hence, $P(3,2) = 6$.

A Formula for the Number of Permutations

Theorem 1: If n is a positive integer and r is an integer with $1 \leq r \leq n$, then there are

$$P(n, r) = n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (n-r+1)$$

r-permutations of a set with n distinct elements.

Proof: Use the product rule. The first element can be chosen in n ways. The second in $n - 1$ ways, and so on until there are $(n - (r - 1))$ ways to choose the last element.

Note that $P(n,0) = 1$, since there is only one way to order zero elements.

Corollary 1: If n and r are integers with $1 \leq r \leq n$, then

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

Solving Counting Problems by Counting Permutations[1]

Example: How many ways are there to select a first-prize winner, a second prize winner, and a third-prize winner from 100 different people who have entered a contest?

Solution:

$$P(100,3) = 100 \cdot 99 \cdot 98 = 970{,}200$$

Solving Counting Problems by Counting Permutations [2]

Example: Suppose that a saleswoman has to visit eight different cities. She must begin her trip in a specified city, but she can visit the other seven cities in any order she wishes. How many possible orders can the saleswoman use when visiting these cities?

Solution: The first city is chosen, and the rest are ordered arbitrarily. Hence the orders are:

$$7! = 7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 5040$$

If she wants to find the tour with the shortest path that visits all the cities, she must consider 5040 paths!

Solving Counting Problems by Counting Permutations [3]

Example: How many permutations of the letters *ABCDEFGH* contain the string *ABC* ?

Solution: We solve this problem by counting the permutations of six objects, *ABC*, *D*, *E*, *F*, *G*, and *H*.

$$6! = 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 720$$

Combinations[1]

Definition: An *r-combination* of elements of a set is an unordered selection of r elements from the set. Thus, an r-combination is simply a subset of the set with r elements. The number of r-combinations of a set with n distinct elements is denoted by $C(n, r)$. The notation $\binom{n}{r}$ is also used and is called a *binomial coefficient*. (*We will see the notation again in the binomial theorem in Section* 6.4.)

Example: Let S be the set $\{a, b, c, d\}$. Then $\{a, c, d\}$ is a 3-combination from S. It is the same as $\{d, c, a\}$ since the order listed does not matter.

$C(4,2) = 6$ because the 2-combinations of $\{a, b, c, d\}$ are the six subsets $\{a, b\}$, $\{a, c\}$, $\{a, d\}$, $\{b, c\}$, $\{b, d\}$, and $\{c, d\}$.

Combinations [2]

Theorem 2: The number of *r*-combinations of a set with *n* elements, where $n \geq r \geq 0$, equals

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

Proof: By the product rule $P(n, r) = C(n,r) \cdot P(r,r)$. Therefore

$$C(n,r) = \frac{p(n,r)}{P(r,r)} = \frac{n!/(n-r)!}{r!/(r-r)!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}.$$

Combinations 3

Example: How many poker hands of five cards can be dealt from a standard deck of 52 cards? Also, how many ways are there to select 47 cards from a deck of 52 cards?

Solution: Since the order in which the cards are dealt does not matter, the number of five card hands is:

$$C(52,5) = \frac{52!}{5!47!}$$

$$= \frac{52 \cdot 51 \cdot 50 \cdot 49 \cdot 48}{5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1} = 26 \cdot 17 \cdot 10 \cdot 49 \cdot 12 = 2,598,960$$

The different ways to select 47 cards from 52 is

$$C(52,47) = \frac{52!}{47!5!} = C(52,5) = 2,598,960$$

This is a special case of a general result. $\rightarrow$

Combinations[4]

Corollary 2: Let n and r be nonnegative integers with $r \leq n$. Then $C(n, r) = C(n, n - r)$.

Proof: From Theorem 2, it follows that

$$C(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$$

and

$$C(n,n-r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)![n-(n-r)]!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}.$$

Hence, $C(n, r) = C(n, n - r)$.

This result can be proved without using algebraic manipulation. $\rightarrow$

Combinatorial Proofs 1

Definition 1: A *combinatorial proof* of an identity is a proof that uses one of the following methods.

- A *double counting proof* uses counting arguments to prove that both sides of an identity count the same objects, but in different ways.
- A *bijective proof* shows that there is a bijection between the sets of objects counted by the two sides of the identity.

Combinatorial Proofs 2

Here are two combinatorial proofs that

$$C(n,r) = C(n,n-r)$$

when r and n are nonnegative integers with $r < n$:

- *Bijective Proof*: Suppose that S is a set with n elements. The function that maps a subset A of S to $\bar{A}$ is a bijection between the subsets of S with r elements and the subsets with $n - r$ elements. Since there is a bijection between the two sets, they must have the same number of elements.
- *Double Counting Proof*: By definition the number of subsets of S with r elements is $C(n, r)$. Each subset A of S can also be described by specifying which elements are not in A, i.e., those which are in $\bar{A}$. Since the complement of a subset of S with r elements has $n - r$ elements, there are also $C(n, n - r)$ subsets of S with r elements.

Combinations 5

Example: How many ways are there to select five players from a 10-member tennis team to make a trip to a match at another school.

Solution: By Theorem 2, the number of combinations is

$$C(10,5) = \frac{10!}{5!5!} = 252.$$

Example: A group of 30 people have been trained as astronauts to go on the first mission to Mars. How many ways are there to select a crew of six people to go on this mission?

Solution: By Theorem 2, the number of possible crews is

$$C(30,6) = \frac{30!}{6!24!} = \frac{30\cdot 29\cdot 28\cdot 27\cdot 26\cdot 25}{6\cdot 5\cdot 4\cdot 3\cdot 2\cdot 1} = 593,775$$