MATH 184A

HW3 Solutions

1.a. By relabeling we can assume that $a_1 = n$. We then consider a permutation in which a_1, \ldots, a_k are in the same cycle. When we put this permutation into canonical cycle notation, the cycle containing a_1, \ldots, a_k will start with n, and will be the last cycle since n is the largest value in [n]. Thus when we apply the bijection from canonical cycle notation to one-line notation, we will get a permutations in which a_2, \ldots, a_k appear after n. Furthermore the preimage of any permutation in which a_2, \ldots, a_k appear after n in the one-line notation will be a permutation in which a_1, \ldots, a_k all appear in a cycle together. Therefore we can answer this problem by counting the number of permutations in one-line notation where a_2, \ldots, a_k appear after n. To count this we first order $a_1, a_2, \dots a_k$ in such a way that $a_1 = n$ appears first, then we order the remaining n-k elements of [n], and finally we interlace these two orderings. There are (k-1)! ways to order $a_1, a_2, \ldots a_k$ with n first. There are (n-k)! ways to order the other n-k elements. Finally there are $\binom{n}{k}$ ways to interlace these orderings because we have to choose k positions out of n for $a_1, \ldots a_k$, and the remaining positions will be taken by the other n-k elements. Then since these choices are independent, by the generalized product rule the total number is

$$(k-1)!(n-k)!\binom{n}{k},$$

which simplifies down to

$$\frac{n!}{\nu}$$

1.b. Similarly to 1.a. we can assume that i=n and j=n-1. When we put such a permutation into canonical cycle notation, the last cycle will start with n, and the second to last cycle will start with n-1. Therefore when we apply the bijection to one-line notation, n will be in position n-a+1, and n-1 will be in position n-a-b+1. Furthermore if n and n-1 are in these positions, then their preimage will have n and n-1 in distinct cycles of length a and b respectively. The number of such permutations will be (n-2)! since we know the position of n and n-1, and there are (n-2)! ways to choose the position of $1, \ldots, n-2$.

2.a. From the formula in the book we know that

$$\frac{n!}{a_1 a_2 \dots a_k b_1! b_2! \dots b_n!}$$

is the number of permutations of n with cycles of length a_1, \ldots, a_k . On the other hand, any permutation of n with k-cycles will give a partition of n into k parts by taking the lengths of the cycles. Thus if we sum over all partitions of n into k parts we will count all of the permutations with k-cycles which is exactly c(n, k).

2.b. We note that a partition of n into n-10 parts will have at most 10 parts of size greater than one, furthermore the sum of non-one parts is at most 20. Thus for $n \geq 20$, we can enumerate all partitions of n into n-10 parts by adding n-20 ones to partitions of 20 into 10 parts. Modifying the equation from 2.a. using this will give us

$$\sum \frac{n!}{a_1 a_2 \dots a_k (b_1 + n - 20)! b_2! \dots b_n!},$$

where the sum is over partitions of 20 into 10 parts. Rewriting this gives

$$\sum \frac{(n)(n-1)...(n-20+b_1+1)}{a_1a_2...a_kb_2!...b_n!}$$

The top is a polynomial in n of degree $20 - b_1$, and the bottom is a constant, and the index of summation does not depend on n, so the sum is a polynomial of degree at most 20, and thus the result is shown.

3.a. Consider constructing a path $(v_0 = v, v_1, \ldots, v_m)$ in G one step at a time. Since $\deg(v) \geq 3$, we have at least three choices for v_1 . Then for $m-1 \geq i > 1$ there are at least two vertices x, y neighboring v_i that are different from v_{i-1} , since $\deg(v_i) \geq 3$. Furthermore $x, y \neq v_j$ for all j < i. To see this, assume by way of contradiction that there exists j < i such that either $v_j = x$ or $v_j = y$, and pick j be maximal. Without loss of generality assume that $v_j = x$. Then $(v_j, v_{j+1}, \ldots, v_i, x)$ is a cycle of length $(i - j + 1) \leq m$, which is a contradiction since we assume that all cycles are of length larger than m. Thus there are at least 2 options v_{i+1} . By this reasoning there at least $3 * 2^{m-1} > 2^m$ paths starting at v_0 .

3.b. If G contains a cycle of length at most $\lceil \log_2(n) \rceil$, then we are done. If not, we can apply 3.a. with $m = \lceil \log_2(n) \rceil$ to conclude that for any vertex v there are at least $2^{\lceil \log_2(n) \rceil} \ge 2^{\log_2(n)} = n$ paths of length $\lceil \log_2(n) \rceil$ starting at v. Since these paths start at v, they cannot end at v, thus there are n-1 possible endpoints for these paths. Therefore by the Pigeon Hole Principle two of these path have the same endpoint. Call these paths $P = (v, p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_m)$ and $Q = (v, q_1, \ldots, q_m)$. We then consider the set S of vertices that appear in both P and Q other than v. The set S is non-empty since it contains the common endpoint $p_m = q_m$. Choose i minimal such that $p_i \in S$ and let j be such that $p_i = q_j$. Then $(v, p_1, \ldots, p_i) = q_j, q_{j-1}, q_{j-2}, \ldots, q_1, v$ is a cycle of length at most $2\lceil \log_2(n) \rceil$, by the minimality of i.