



CSc 28

Discrete Structures

Chapter 6

Counting

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Syllabus

- Basic **Counting** Principles
- **Inclusion-Exclusion**
- Permutation and Combination
- Binomial Coefficients
- Summary
- References

Counting

Basic Counting Principles

- **Counting problems** are of various kinds; subject sounds simple! 😊
- Here some counting examples:
 - How many **different 8-letter passwords** are there?
 - What is the **probability of winning the lottery**?
 - How many possible ways are there to **pick 11 soccer players** out of 20 members in a soccer club?
- **Counting** is the basis for computing **probabilities of discrete events**

Rule of Sum

Basic Counting Principles

The **Rule of Sum** in combinatorics, with **a** and **b** ways:

- *Rule of sum* states: if there are **a possible outcomes** for an event –or **a ways to do something**
- . . . And there are **b possible outcomes** for another event –or **b ways to do another thing**
- . . . And the **two events a and b cannot both occur** (i.e. only one event shall happen)
- Then there will be a total of: **$total = a + b$** possible outcomes
- **$a + b$ possible choices** of some event happening
- But **only one** shall happen

Basic Counting Principles



Basic Counting Principles

Combinatorics per Wiki: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Combinatorics>

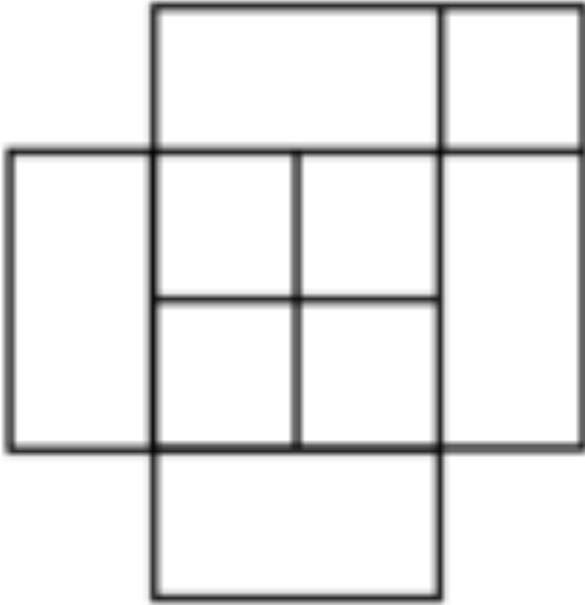
Combinatorics is an area of mathematics primarily **concerned with counting**, both as a means and an end in obtaining results, and certain properties of finite structures. It is closely related to many other areas of mathematics and has many applications ranging from logic to statistical physics, from **evolutionary biology** to **computer science**, etc.

Basic Counting Principles

Example for the **Rule of Sum**:

- A Sac State student decides to shop at **one store** in Sacramento, either in the north or the south
- If she visits the **north**, she will shop at the **mall**, or at a **furniture store**, or at a **jewelry store**: 3 options
- Else, if she visits the **south** part, she will shop at a **clothing store** or a **shoe store**: 2 options
- Then there are **$3 + 2 = 5$** possible ways she could end up shopping today
- But she shall **go shopping just once!** Not both South and North of Sacramento!

Basic Counting Principles



How many
squares can
you find in
this figure?

Don't Count Rectangles, Only **Squares!**

Basic Counting Principles

Did you find all 11 squares? Yes 11!

Rule of Product

Basic Counting Principles

The **Rule of Product** in combinatorics:

- In contrast to the Rule of Sum: In combinatorics the **Rule of Product** (AKA multiplication principle) is another basic counting principle
- AKA a **fundamental principle** of counting
- Stated simply: It is the idea that if there are **a** ways of doing something
- . . . And **b** ways of doing another thing
- Then there are **$a * b$** ways of performing both actions if **they both will be done**

Basic Counting Principles

- **Example of:** *How Many Permutations?*
 - How many different license plates are there that contain exactly and only 3 of the 26 English letters?
 - Note that it is allowed to pick the same letter **more than just once!** The 'X' may be there 2 or even 3 times 😊
- **Solution:**
 - There are 26 possibilities to pick the first letter, then there are also 26 possibilities for the second one, and 26 for the last one
- So there are $26 * 26 * 26 = 17,576$ different license plates, since repetition is allowed: $26^3 = 17,576$

Basic Counting Principles

Generalized **Rule of Product**:

If we have a procedure consisting of sequential tasks T_1, T_2, \dots, T_m that each can be done in n_1, n_2, \dots, n_m ways, respectively, and **they all shall be done**, then there are $n_1 * n_2 * \dots * n_m$ ways to carry out the whole procedure

Basic Counting Principles

How many permutations are there for all four of the *unique* capital letters A B C D? Unique = no repetition!

ABCD
ABDC
ACBD
ACDB
ADBC
ADCB

BACD
BADC
BCAD
BCDA
BDAC
BDCA

CABD
CADB
CBAD
CBDA
CDAB
CDBA

DABC
DACB
DBAC
DBCA
DCAB
DCBA

- **4** for the first letter, any of the 4, no matter which!
- Times **3** for the second letter, but don't choose the first letter again! That is done already
- Times **2** . . .

Basic Counting Principles

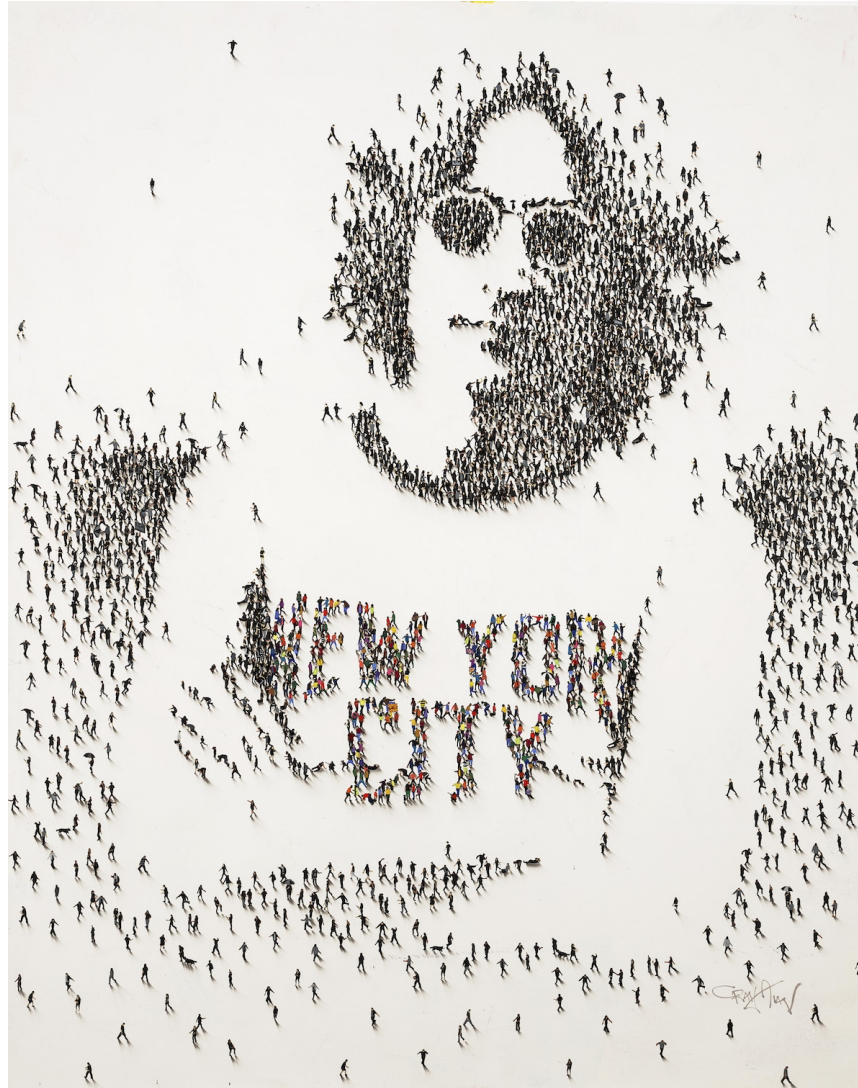
- The rule of sum (Sum Rule) and rule of product (**Product Rule**) can be phrased in terms of set theory
- **Sum rule:** Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m be disjoint, finite sets
- Then the number of ways to choose one element *from one* of these sets is:

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_m| = |A_1| + |A_2| + \dots + |A_m|$$

- **Product rule:** Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m be disjoint, finite sets
- Then the number of ways to choose one element *from each* of these sets is:

$$|A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_m| = |A_1| * |A_2| * \dots * |A_m|$$

Basic Counting



Count The Number of People in This Picture!

Probability

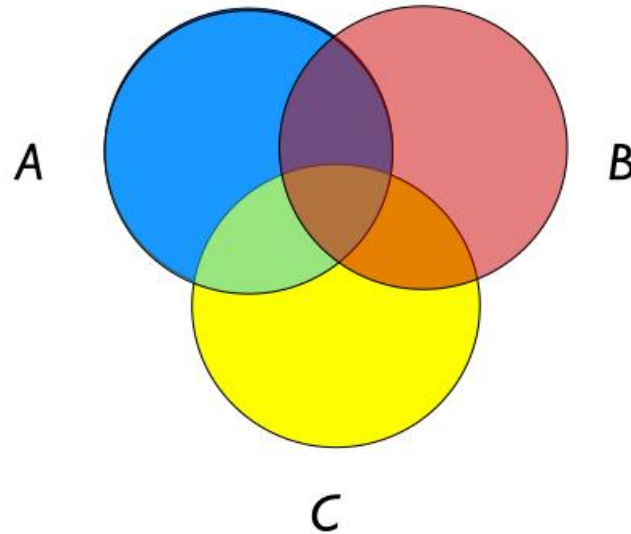
- **Wiki: Probability is the extent to which something is probable; the likelihood of something happening or being the case**
- **Wiki: Probability is the extent to which an event is likely to occur, measured by the ratio of the favorable cases to the whole number of cases possible**
- **Probability is the likelihood of an event to occur. Thus it can vary between 0 and 1**
- **Probability is the number of ways of achieving success divided by the total number of possible outcomes**

Inclusion - Exclusion

Inclusion-Exclusion 3 Sets

Inclusion-Exclusion (3 sets)

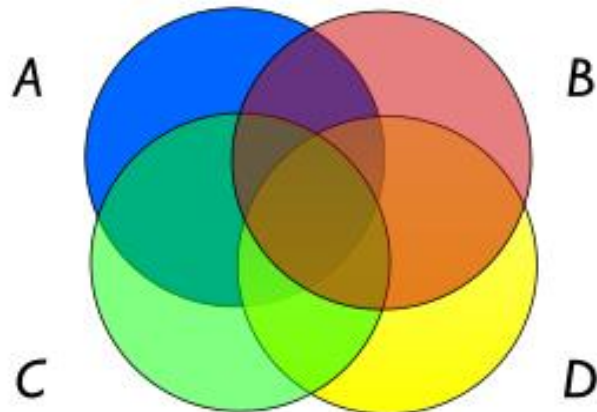
$$\begin{aligned} |A \cup B \cup C| &= |A| + |B| + |C| \\ &\quad - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| \\ &\quad + |A \cap B \cap C| \end{aligned}$$



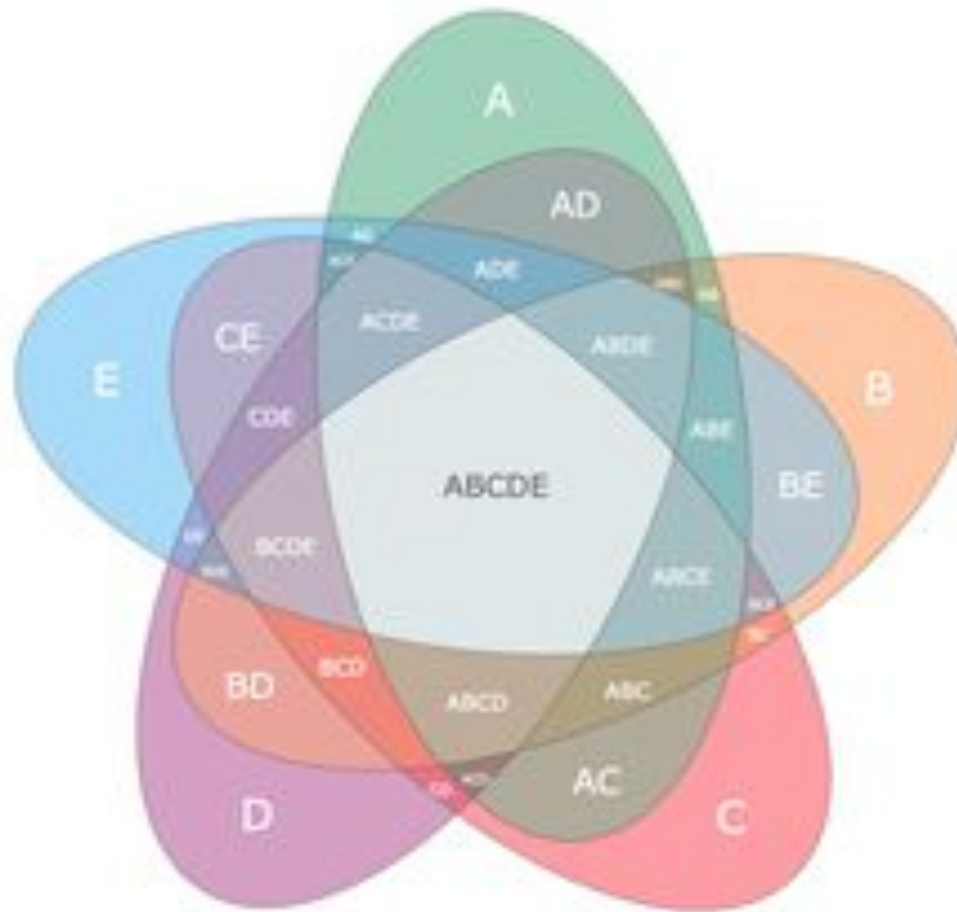
Inclusion-Exclusion 4 Sets

Inclusion-Exclusion (4 sets)

$$\begin{aligned} |A \cup B \cup C \cup D| = & |A| + |B| + |C| + |D| \\ & - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |A \cap D| - |B \cap C| - |B \cap D| - |C \cap D| \\ & + |A \cap B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap D| + |A \cap C \cap D| + |B \cap C \cap D| \\ & - |A \cap B \cap C \cap D| \end{aligned}$$



Inclusion-Exclusion 5 Sets



Inclusion-Exclusion

- How many bit strings of length 8 either start with one digit 1 or end with the two digits 00? (Inclusive or)
- Compute both Task 1 and Task 2:
- **Task 1:** Construct bit strings of length 8 starting with a single digit 1
 - There is one way to pick the first bit (1)
 - Two ways to pick the second bit (0 or 1),
 - Two ways to pick the third bit (0 or 1),
 - ...
 - And two ways to pick the eighth bit (0 or 1)
- Task 1 can be done in $1 * 2^7 = 128$ ways

Inclusion-Exclusion

- **Task 2:** Construct bit string, length 8 that ends with 00
 - There are **two** ways to pick the first bit (0 or 1),
 - **Two** ways to pick the second bit (0 or 1),
 - . . . for third to fifth
 - **Two** ways to pick the sixth bit (0 or 1),
 - **One** way to pick the seventh bit (0), and
 - **One** way to pick the eighth bit (0)
- Task 2 can be done in $1 * 1 * 2^6 = 64$ ways

Inclusion-Exclusion

- There are **128** ways to do Task 1 and **64** ways to do Task 2
- Does this mean that there are $128 + 64 = 192$ bit strings either starting with 1 or ending with 00?
- No, because here Task 1 and Task 2 can be done at the same time
- When we carry out Task 1 and create strings starting with 1, some of these strings end with 00
- We **cannot double-count** them!
- Therefore, we sometimes do Tasks 1 and Task 2 at the same time, so the **sum rule** does not apply

Inclusion-Exclusion

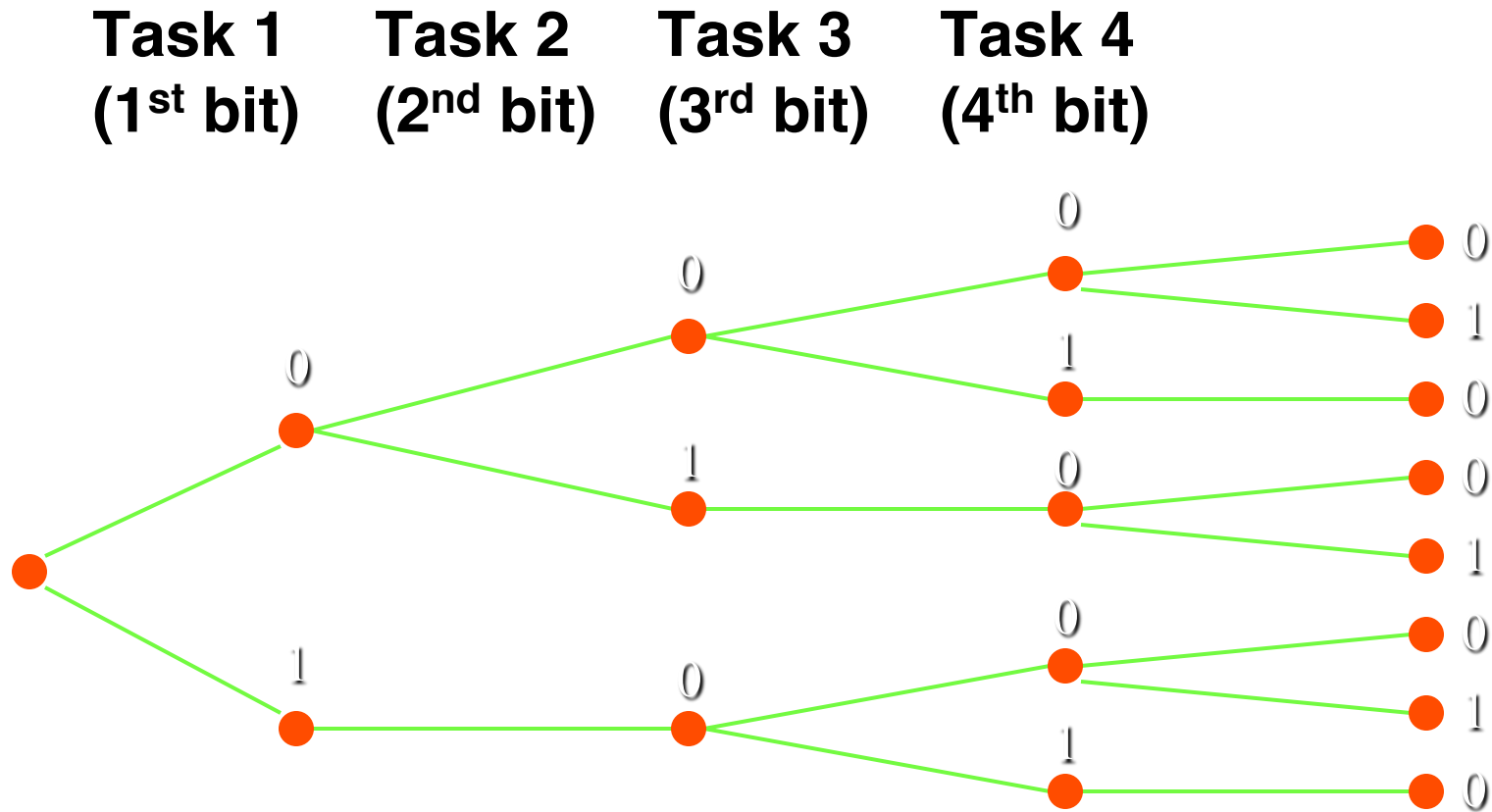
- To count correctly: subtract cases when Tasks 1 and Task 2 are done **simultaneously!**
- I.e. **eliminate duplicates!**
- How many duplicate cases are there, that is, how many strings start with 1 **and** end with 00?
 - There is one way to pick the first bit (1),
 - Two ways for the second,
 - Two ways for the third bit (0 or 1)
 - . . . fourth to sixth
 - One way for the seventh bit (0)
 - One way for the eighth bit (0)
- Thus 5 bits can be varied! = 2^5
- In $2^5 = 32$ cases, Tasks 1 and 2 are carried out at the same time

Inclusion-Exclusion

- Since there are 128 ways to complete Task 1 and 64 ways to complete Task 2, and in 32 of these cases Tasks 1 and 2 are completed at the same time, there are: $128 + 64 - 32 = 160$ ways to do either task
- In set theory, this corresponds to sets A_1 and A_2 that are not disjoint. Then we have:
- $|A_1 \cup A_2| = |A_1| + |A_2| - |A_1 \cap A_2|$
- This is called the principle of inclusion-exclusion

Tree Diagrams

How many bit strings of **length four** do **not** have **two consecutive 1s**?



There are 8 strings

Pigeonhole Principle

Pigeonhole Principle



At Most One Occupant Per Slot; Not Two!

Pigeonhole Principle

- **Pigeonhole** principle: If $k + 1$ or more objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing two or more of the objects
- **Example 1**: If there are 11 players in a soccer team that wins 12-0, there must be at least **one player** in the team who scored **two goals** or more!
- **Example 2**: If you have 6 classes at Sac State Monday through Friday, there must be at least one day on which you have two or more classes

Pigeonhole Principle

- The **generalized pigeonhole principle**: If **N** objects are placed into **k** boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ of the objects
- **Example 3**: In some 60-student class, **at least 12** students got the same letter grade A, B, C, D, or F

Pigeonhole Principle

- **Example 4:** Assume you have a drawer containing a random distribution of **one dozen brown socks** and **one dozen black socks**. It is dark, so you just grab some. How many socks must you grab minimally to be sure that among them be a matching pair?
- There are **2** types of socks, so if you pick at least **3** socks, there must be either at least 2 brown socks or at least 2 black socks

Permutation & Combination

Permutation and Combination

Source Wiki: <https://medium.com/i-math/combinations-permutations-fa7ac680f0ac>

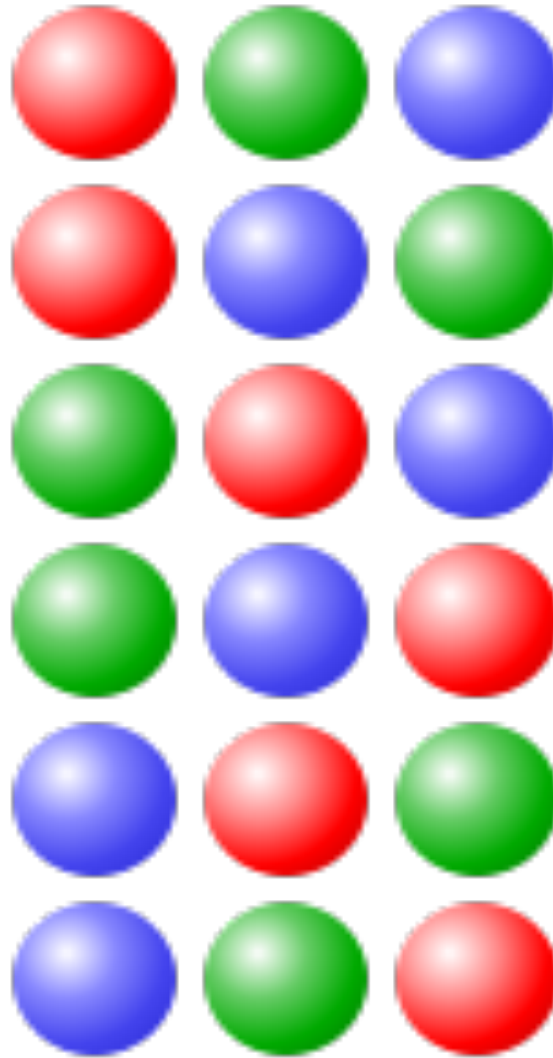
The difference between combinations and permutations is ordering. With **permutations** we *care about the order* of the elements, whereas with **combinations** we *don't*. For example, say your locker “combo” is **5432**. If you enter 4325 into your locker it won't open because that is a different ordering of the 4 digits (i.e. a different **permutation**) yet has all the same digits! Just in a different order!

Clearly a “combination lock” should more correctly be named a “**permutation lock**”! 😊

Permutation and Combination

Rule of thumb: The number of permutations is generally greater than the number of combinations

Permutations



3 Balls, 3 Colors, No Repeat Color, Yields 6 **Permutations**

Permutation and Combination

In general, a permutation $P(n,k)$ has more choices than a combination $C(n,k)$

Permutation Formula:

Combination Formula:

Combination Formula:

Combination Formula:

$$P(n,k) = n! / (n-k)!$$

$$C(n,k) = P(n,k) / k!$$

$$C(n,k) = n! / ((n-k)! * k!)$$

$$C(n,k) = n \text{ choose } k$$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \begin{cases} \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} & \text{for } 0 \leq k < n \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Case } k = 0: C(n,0) = n! / ((n-0)! * 0!) = n! / (n! * 1) = 1$$

Permutation and Combination

All permutations of **2, 3, 4, and 5**, are shown below

Note: digits in this example must be unique, thus we cannot, for example, pick the **3** twice! But as we discuss **permutations**, the 3 may be at any of the four positions!

There are 4 choices to choose the first digit; 3 choices for the second; 2 for the third position; only 1 left for the fourth position, yielding $4 * 3 * 2 * 1 = 24$ permutations!

5432, 5423, 5324, 5342, 5234, 5243, 4532, 4523,
4325, 4352, 4253, 4235, 3542, 3524, 3425, 3452,
3254, 3245, 2543, 2534, 2435, 2453, 2354, 2345

Permutation & Combination Detail

Permutation and Combination

- How many choices are there to pick 3 distinct people from a group of 6 persons? Persons = A B C D E F
- Initial quick ☺ claim: There are 6 choices for the first person, 5 for the second one, and 4 for the third one, so there are: $6 * 5 * 4 = 120$ ways to do this

Be very careful! Is this correct?

- Consider: Picking person C first; then person A; then E
- Leads to the same group as first picking person E, then C, and then A; selection order does not matter here!
- These cases were counted separately in the initial above computation of 120, and that was wrong! See 46

Permutation and Combination

- Back to the general challenge: compute how many different subsets of people can be picked?
 - That is, we ignore the selection order – in combinations!
 - We know subgroup (person1, person2) is the same as subgroup (person2, person1)
 - Order of listing them for this type of problem doesn't matter
- To identify the combinations, start by first computing all **permutations**:
- 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**

Permutation and Combination

- Example: Let $S = \{ 1, 2, 3 \}$
- The arrangement **3, 1, 2** is a **3-permutation** of S
- The arrangement **3, 2, 1** is also a **3-permutation** of S
- The arrangement **3, 2** is a **2-permutation** of S
- The arrangement **1, 3** is also a **2-permutation** of S
- The number of r -permutations of a set with n distinct elements is denoted by **$P(n,r)$**
- We can calculate **$P(n,r)$** with the **product rule**:
- $P(n,r) = n * (n - 1) * (n - 2) * \dots * (n - r + 1)$
- **n** choices for the first element, $(n - 1)$ for the second one, $(n - 2)$ for the third one . . .

Permutation and Combination

- **Example:**
- $P(8,3) = (8 \cdot 7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1) / (5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1) = 8 \cdot 7 \cdot 6 = 336$
- **General formula for permutation $P(n,r)$:**

$$P(n,r) = n! / (n - r)!$$

- **Knowing this, we can return to our initial question:**
- **How many ways** (i.e. how many **combinations**) are there to pick 3 people from a group of 6
- **That will mean: regardless of order of selecting?**

Permutation and Combination

- An **r-combination** of elements of a set S is an **unordered selection** of r elements from S
- Example: Let $S = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4 \}$
- Then $\{ 1, 3, 4 \}$ is a 3-combination from S
- Note that $\{ 3, 1, 4 \}$ is the same 3-combination from S
- The number of **r-combinations** of a set with **n** distinct elements is denoted by **$C(n,r)$**
- Goal, to compute **$C(n,r)$**
- Example: $C(4,2) = 6$, since the 2-combinations of sample set S are $\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{1, 4\}, \{2, 3\}, \{2, 4\}, \{3, 4\}$

Permutation and Combination

- How can we calculate $C(n,r)$?
- Consider that we can obtain the r -permutation $P(n,r)$ of a set with n elements in the following way:
- First, we form all r -combinations of set; there are $C(n,r)$ such r -combinations
- Then, we generate all possible orderings in each of these r -combinations
- There are $P(r,r)$ such orderings in each case

Therefore: $P(n,r) = C(n,r) * P(r,r)$

Permutation and Combination

$$C(n,r) = P(n,r) / P(r,r)$$

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

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

- Remember: $0! = 1$
- Now we can answer: How many ways are there to pick a set of 3 people from a group of 6 (disregarding the order of picking)?
- $C(6,3) = 6! / (3! * 3!) = (4*5*6) / 3! = 4*5 = 20$
- There are 20 different ways, that is there are 20 different groups that can be picked

Permutation and Combination

Example: A soccer club has 8 female and 7 male members. For today's match, the coach wants to have 6 female and 5 male players on the grass. How many possible configurations (i.e. **combinations**) are there?

$$\begin{aligned}C(8, 6) * C(7, 5) &= (8! / (6! * 2!)) * (7! / (5! * 2!)) \\&= 28 * 21 \\&= 588\end{aligned}$$

There are 588 different combinations of forming soccer teams under the above configuration conditions

Permutation and Combination

Corollary:

Let n and r be nonnegative integers with $r \leq n$

$$\text{Then } C(n, r) = C(n, n - r)$$

Note that “picking a subgroup of r people from a group of n ” is the same as “splitting a group of n people into one group of r people, and into another group of $n-r$ people”

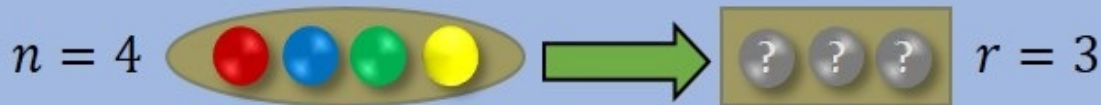
Permutation and Combination

$$C(n, r) = n! / ((n-r)! * r!)$$

$$\begin{aligned} C(n, n-r) &= n! / ((n-(n-r))! * (n-r)!) \\ &= n! / (r! * (n-r)!) \\ &= n! / ((n-r)! * r!) \end{aligned}$$

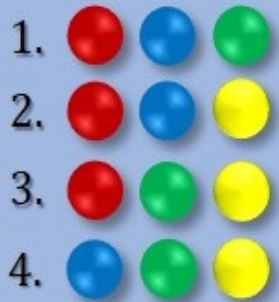
q.e.d.

Permutation and Combination



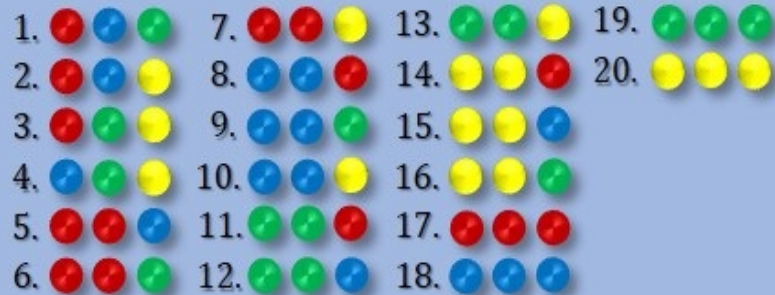
Combination

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



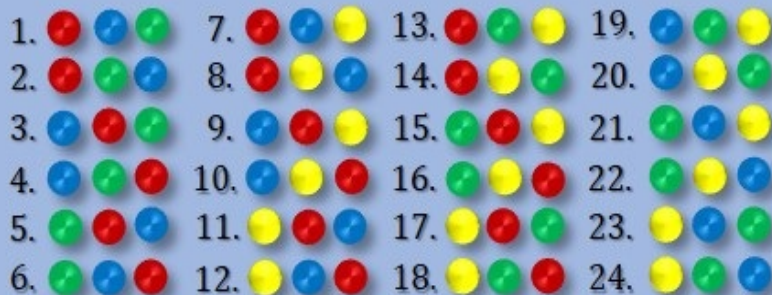
Combination
with repetition

$$C'(n, r) = \frac{(r+n-1)!}{r!(n-1)!}$$



Permutation

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



Permutation
with repetition

$$P'(n, r) = n^r$$



Combination

We saw:

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

- This symmetry is intuitively plausible. For example, let us consider a set containing six elements: **$n = 6$**
- Picking two elements and leaving four is essentially the same as picking four elements and leaving two
- We can say: we are “**not picking**” four out of six; our action being: “*not picking*”
- In either case, the number of choices is the number of possibilities to divide the set into **one set containing two elements** and **another set containing four elements**

Combination

- Pascal's Identity:
- Let n and k be positive integers with $n \geq k$. Then

$$C(n + 1, k) = C(n, k - 1) + C(n, k)$$

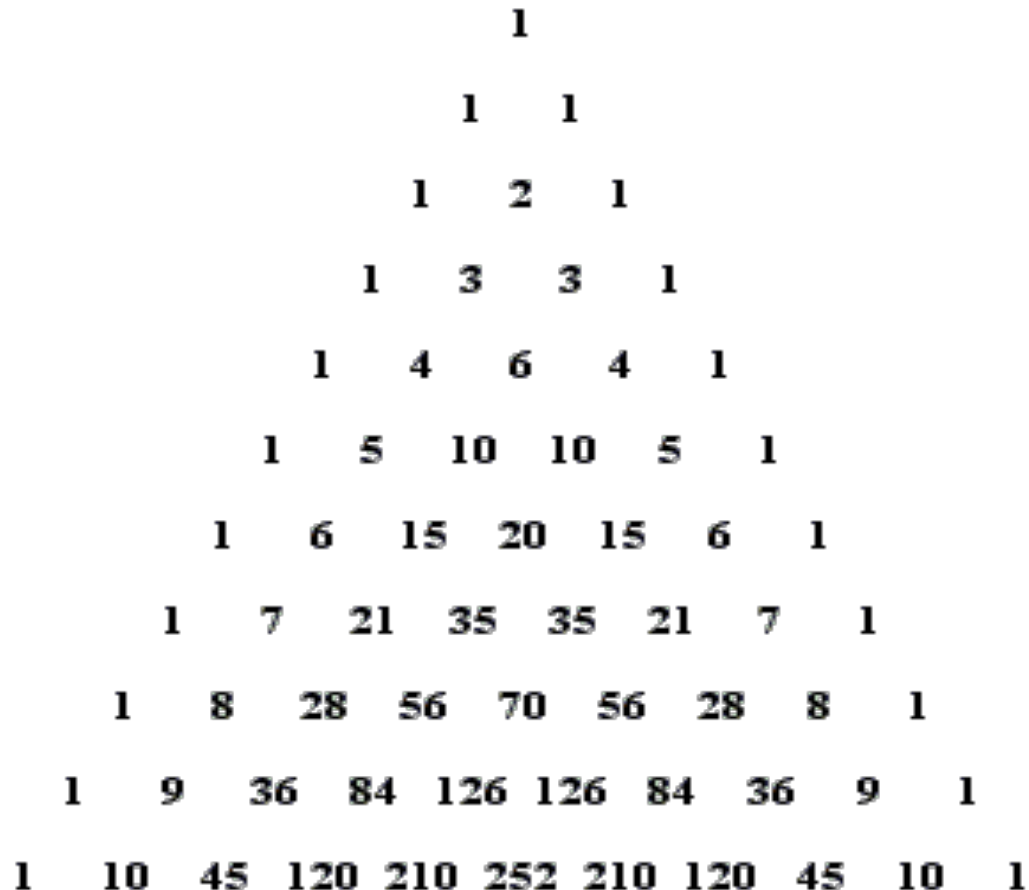
- How can this be explained? What is it good for?

Combination

- Imagine a set **S** containing n elements and a set **T** containing $(n + 1)$ elements, namely all elements in **S** plus a new element **a**
- Calculating $C(n + 1, k)$ is equivalent to answering the question: How many subsets of **T** that contain **k** items are there?
- Case I: The subset contains $(k - 1)$ elements of **S** plus the element **a**: $C(n, k - 1)$ choices
- Case II: The subset contains k elements of **S** and does not contain **a**: $C(n, k)$ choices
- Sum Rule: $C(n + 1, k) = C(n, k - 1) + C(n, k)$

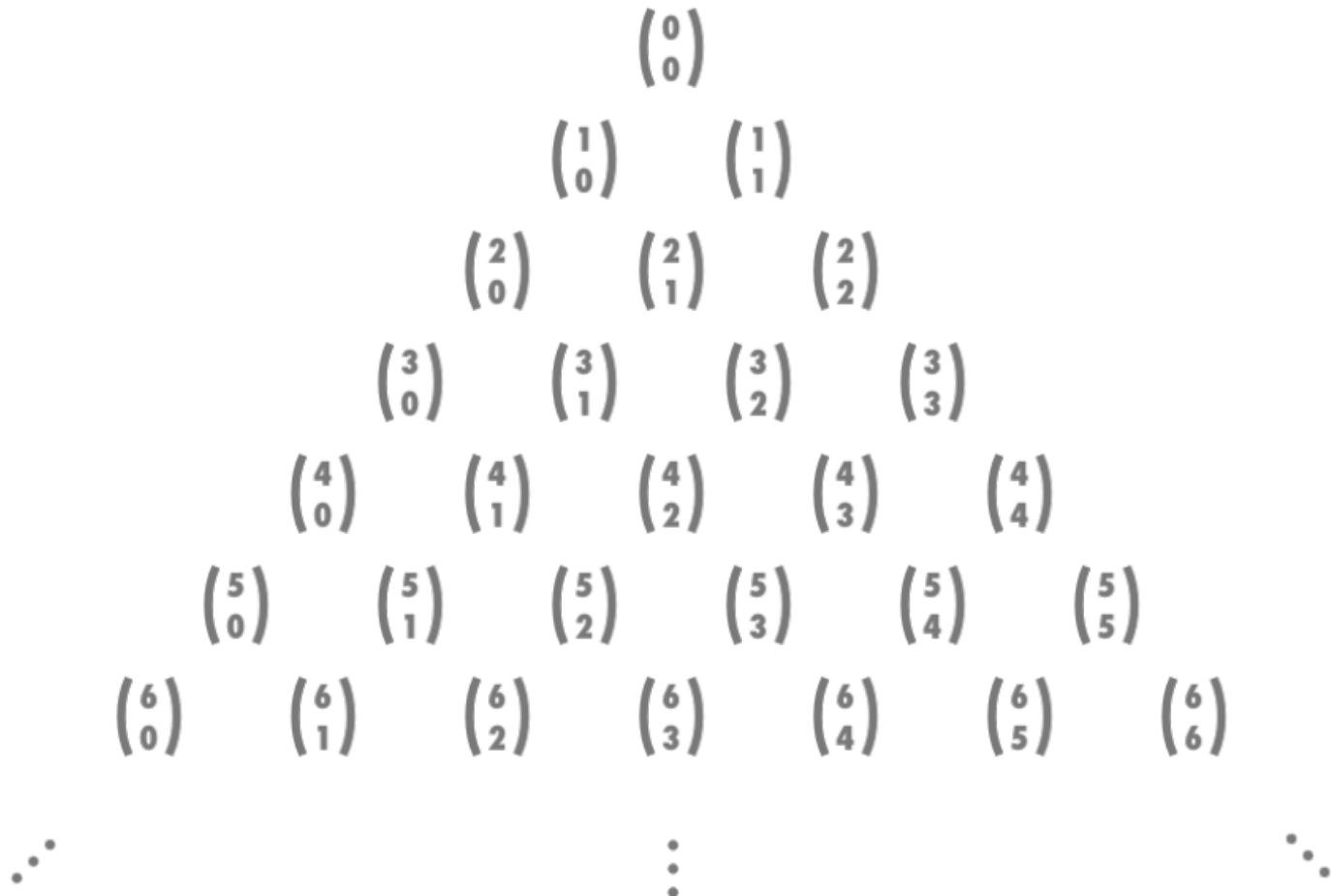
Pascal's Triangle

In Pascal's Triangle, initiate both outsides with 1. Each number is the sum of numbers to its upper left + right:



Pascal's Triangle

Pascal's Triangle incorporates the **Choose** function

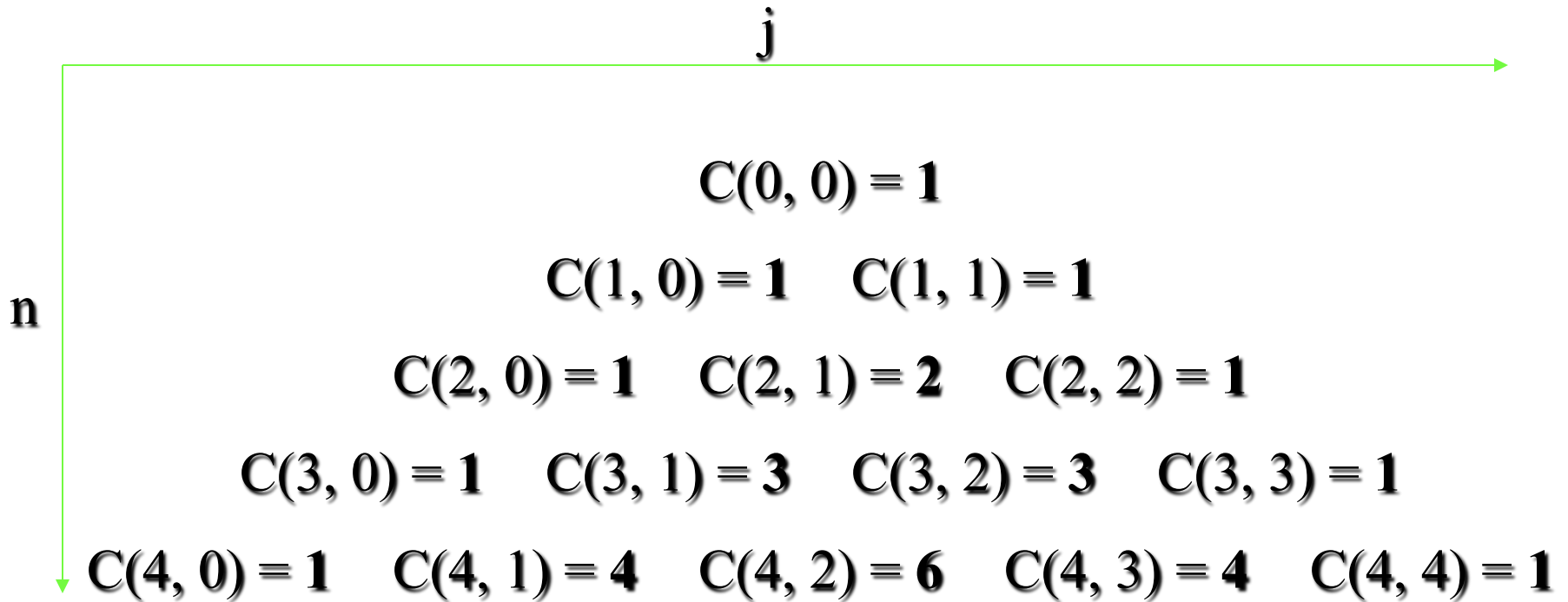


Detail of Pascal's Triangle

															1																			
														1		1																		
													1		2		1																	
												1		3		3		1																
											1		4		6		4		1															
										1		5		10		10		5		1														
									1		6		15		20		15		6		1													
								1		7		21		35		35		21		7		1												
							1		8		28		56		70		56		28		8		1											
						1		9		36		84		126		126		84		36		9		1										
					1		10		45		120		210		252		210		120		45		10		1									
				1		11		55		165		330		462		462		330		165		55		11		1								
			1		12		66		220		495		792		924		792		495		220		66		12		1							
		1		13		78		286		715		1287		1716		1716		1287		715		286		78		13		1						
	1		14		91		364		1001		2002		3003		3432		3003		2002		1001		364		91		14		1					
	1		15		105		455		1365		3003		5005		6435		6435		5005		3003		1365		455		105		15		1			
	1		16		120		560		1820		4368		8008		11440		12870		11440		8008		4368		1820		560		120		16		1	

Pascal's Triangle

Since we have $C(n + 1, j) = C(n, j - 1) + C(n, j)$ and $C(0, 0) = 1$, we use Pascal's triangle to simplify $C(n, j)$:



A diagram of Pascal's Triangle. A vertical green arrow on the left points downwards and is labeled 'n'. A horizontal green arrow at the top points to the right and is labeled 'j'. The triangle consists of five rows of binomial coefficients, each row indented further to the right than the previous one.

				$C(0, 0) = 1$					
			$C(1, 0) = 1$	$C(1, 1) = 1$					
		$C(2, 0) = 1$	$C(2, 1) = 2$	$C(2, 2) = 1$					
	$C(3, 0) = 1$	$C(3, 1) = 3$	$C(3, 2) = 3$	$C(3, 3) = 1$					
$C(4, 0) = 1$	$C(4, 1) = 4$	$C(4, 2) = 6$	$C(4, 3) = 4$	$C(4, 4) = 1$					

Binomial Coefficients

- Expressions of the form $C(n, k)$ are called **binomial coefficients**. Reason?
- **Binomial expression** sums two terms at various powers: $(a + b)^n$
- Now consider $(a + b)^2 = (a + b) * (a + b)$
- When expanding such expressions, this forms all possible products of a term with 2 summands **a** and **b**:

$$(a + b)^2 = a * a + a * b + b * a + b * b$$

- Sum up identical terms:

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2 * a * b + b^2$$

coefficients being: **1 2 1**

Binomial Coefficients

- For $(a + b)^3 = (a + b)(a + b)(a + b)$ we have:
- $(a + b)^3 = aaa + aab + aba + abb + baa + bab + bba + bbb$
- $(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$
- There is only one term a^3 , as there is exactly one way to form it: Choose a from all three factors: $C(3,0) = 1$
- Ditto with single term b^3 and $C(3,3) = 1$
- Three times a^2b , as there are three possibilities to choose a from two of three factors: $C(3, 2) = 3$
- Similarly, term ab^2 occurs three times
- $C(3,1) = 3$ plus the factor for term b^3 equals $C(3, 0) = 1$

Binomial Coefficients

Leading to formula:

$$(a + b)^n = \sum_{j=0}^n C(n, j) \cdot a^{n-j} b^j \quad \text{Coefficient } C(n, j): \text{ See p. 57}$$

- With the help of Pascal's triangle, this formula considerably simplifies process of expanding powers of binomial expressions
- For example, the fifth row of Pascal's triangle on p. 54 (1 4 6 4 1) helps us to compute $(a + b)^4$:

$$(a + b)^4 = a^4 + 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4$$

Summary

- Number of **permutations** of n distinct objects = $n!$
- **Combination** is a **unordered selection** of k items from a set of n , with $n \geq k$. The number of combinations is

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

AKA: "**n choose k**"

- Pascal's Triangle computes **coefficients** for all summands of $(a + b)^n$

References

- 1. Wiki rule of sum: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rule_of_sum**
- 2. Wiki rule of product: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rule_of_product**
- 3. Probability: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Probability>**
- 4. Combinatorics: <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Combinatorics>**